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EDITOR

DAVID ALLAN ROBERTSON

Vol. V

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CONFERENCE WITH THE BRITISH EDUCATIONAL MISSION, IDA NOYES HALL

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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

VOLUME V JANUARY 1919 NUMBER 1

THE BRITISH EDUCATIONAL MISSION

During the Autumn Quarter the British Educational Mission to the United States, which was sent by the British government on invitation of the Council of National Defense, visited Chicago. The purpose of the Mission was "to inquire into the best means of procuring closer co-operation between British and American educational institutions, to the end of making increasingly firm the bonds of sympathy and understanding that now unite the English-speaking world." The members of the Mission were as follows: Dr. Arthur Everett Shipley, vice-chancellor of the University of Cambridge, master of Christ's College and reader in zoölogy; Sir Henry Miers, vice-chancellor of the University of Manchester and professor of crystallography; the Rev. Edward Mewburn Walker, fellow, senior tutor, and librarian of Queen's College, member of the Hebdomadal Council, Oxford University; Sir Henry Jones, professor of moral philosophy, University of Glasgow; Dr. John Joly, professor of geology and mineralogy, Trinity College, Dublin; Miss Caroline Spurgeon, professor of English literature, Bedford College, University of London; Miss Rose Sidgwick, lecturer on ancient history, University of Birmingham. At the request of the Council of National Defense, the American Council on Education undertook all arrangements for the tour of the Mission. Of the reception committee the Hon. Elihu Root was chairman. The chairman of the committee immediately in charge was President Donald J. Cowling, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota. The chairman of the Chicago committee was the Vice-President of the University of Chicago, James Rowland Angell. The Mission arrived in Chicago on the

evening of November 7 and was escorted by members of the University to the University Club and the Hotel La Salle, places which remained headquarters until the Mission left the city after visiting the University of Illinois, Northwestern University, the Yerkes Observatory, and the meetings of the Association of State Universities. For the women of the Mission the Chicago College Club gave a luncheon on November 12. At the same time the University Club gave a luncheon for the gentlemen of the Mission.

The members of the British Mission were escorted to the University of Chicago on Friday morning, November 8, and were received in the President's office by the Vice-President of the University and a reception committee: Mr. Ernest D. Burton, chairman, Mr. R. G. Moulton, Mr. T. C. Chamberlin, Mr. W. G. Hale, and Miss Marion Talbot. After a brief conference the guests visited the General Library and the Classical and Geology Departmental libraries. They then visited certain laboratories in which they were individually interested. At one o'clock Mrs. Harry Pratt Judson entertained the gentlemen of the Mission at luncheon. At the same hour Dean Talbot and other women of the University Faculties entertained the women of the Mission at Nancy Foster Hall. At three o'clock in the theater of Ida Noyes Hall there was a conference. At the tables in the center of the room were Vice-President Angell, and (to his right) Dr. A. E. Shipley, Sir Henry Jones, Dean Shailer Mathews, the Reverend E. M. Walker, Professor Paul Shorey, Miss Rose Sidgwick, Professor E. D. Burton, Mr. W. A. Payne, the Recorder of the University, Dean A. W. Small, Professor R. R. Bensley, Director C. H. Judd, Professor J. H. Breasted, Miss Caroline Spurgeon, Dean R. D. Salisbury, Dr. John J. Joly, and Sir Henry Miers. The following is a stenographic record of the conference:

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: This is an occasion which is altogether unprecedented in our own history and, I suspect, in the history of American colleges. We have an opportunity of talking, in an informal way, with the representatives of the great British universities who are our guests today, particularly with a view to setting on foot such measures as we can intelligently devise to improve the intimacy of our relations with one another, not only as regards our students, but as regards the faculties of our several institutions. It has been suggested to us, and we believe it has been an expression of the preference of our guests, that in place of the more usual formalities of a state visit of distinguished guests, with meetings of the public-assemblage type and formal speeches,

we should come together in this informal way and discuss the topics which seem to us most fruitful for the purpose which brings the Mission here. As the result of a conference of our own Senate, we have ourselves suggested a few topics which seemed, on the whole, profitable for some discussion. We have not designed to make these topics in any sense the coercive program of the afternoon, and we shall be glad to have our guests depart from them at any point they may desire. But we thought it might help to expedite the program if we kept these topics in our own mind and presented them very briefly, and, where they seemed to be particularly profitable for discussion, called upon our guests to make such comment as they cared to make before going on to another subject.

Topics Suggested for Discussion

1. *Motives probably controlling migration of American students.*—There seems reason to believe that American students are not likely to be attracted in large numbers to British universities for the purpose of securing degrees. On the other hand, the opportunities for advanced study in particular lines and with scholars of eminence are certain to attract many. The great libraries and other collections are likely to be peculiarly tempting. In establishing plans for improving international educational relations due weight should be accorded to these circumstances.

For the use of students who do desire to obtain British degrees there should be an unequivocal interpretation of the relation between the Bachelor's degree from leading American universities and the "pass" and "honor" degrees of the British universities. In the case of British students who may be attracted to American institutions the same understanding is essential. Possibly some central board might be established to certify credentials.

2. *Co-ordination of opportunities afforded by British universities with those of the great libraries and scientific collections.*—At the present time American students are not always able to avail themselves of the facilities offered by the great British libraries and collections, to say nothing of the possibility of combining such opportunities with study at British universities. If some program involving co-operation on the part of these several agencies could be established it would greatly enhance the attractiveness of study and research in Great Britain.

In this connection attention may be called to the desirability of a larger degree of co-operation on the part of British libraries in the matter of exchanges and of cataloguing systems. American libraries at present find it appreciably more difficult to deal with the British authorities in these matters than with those on the Continent.

3. *Provision for distinctly advanced research.*—Consideration may properly be given to the wisdom of emphasizing the establishment of highly paid fellowships or other devices of this character to enable young scholars who have already proved their scientific productivity to spend a year or more in Great Britain, studying wherever men and materials are most attractive. This proposal would look to the migration of a small, carefully selected group rather than to the attracting into British institutions of a larger number of graduate students of the ordinary type.

4. *Exchange professorships.*—Consideration should be given, in the light of past experience, to the best forms of exchange professorships.

5. *Anglo-American University Commission.*—It is suggested that in the furtherance of more intimate relations between the British and American universities there may well be established an Anglo-American University Commission, to the end that such measures as are adopted may reflect the best judgment of the educational authorities of the two countries concerned.

6. *The relation of British universities to American soldiers and sailors during the period of demobilization.*—It has already been suggested that the British universities may put their resources at the disposal of American soldiers and sailors during the period of demobilization on the lines already more or less matured for Canadians. This plan has very great promise, especially if it be carried out in such a way as to provide short courses which could be attended by properly qualified men. The suggestion is made that if the plan be actually put in operation a certain number of American instructors, drawn from the American Army and Navy, or from American civil life, be secured to assist in establishing the adjustments. Such a plan would not only facilitate the fitting of the student to the opportunities but would also serve to familiarize American educational men with the actual inside workings of British institutions.

Two other suggestions are offered, which it is not at present perhaps desirable to discuss in detail. The one relates to the necessity of bearing constantly in mind the intimate relationship of secondary to collegiate education. Any general program which disregards this consideration is likely to encounter grave difficulties. The other relates to the desirability of preparing a handbook for both American and British students, in which is set forth succinctly but intelligibly the opportunities afforded by the various British and American institutions.

The committee in charge of our meeting has suggested that we begin the discussion with a very brief statement on the part of one or more of our own membership, and so a few of the members of the Faculty have been asked to introduce these topics, and then they will be thrown open to general discussion. I should like to have all the members of the Faculty who are present appreciate the informal character of our discussion. Those who have offered to open the discussion have no desire to monopolize the subject.

The order in which the topics are listed is also quite unimportant; it merely represented the order which seemed to be convenient. The first of the topics which we have suggested—"Motives Probably Controlling Migration of American Students"—was to have been presented by Professor McLaughlin, who has unfortunately just had news of the loss of one of his boys in France and cannot, of course, be present. Professor Mathews has kindly consented to take his place.

PROFESSOR MATHEWS: We are likely to be affected, I suppose, by the experience which American students have had in former years in going to foreign universities to study. Their purposes are, in a way, to be classified under three general heads. In the first place, men

have gone abroad for the purpose of making degrees at foreign universities. At the same time, they have gone for the purpose of pursuing certain distinct, specialized studies and not intending to make a degree. And in the third place, they have gone for what might be called the general humanizing effect of contact with the associations of the academic halls of the great universities abroad.

I should say, Mr. Chairman, that the details governing the first purpose, so far as they apply to the recognition of American universities by English universities, and the granting of degrees thereby, are pretty well cared for in the general plan which we trust the distinguished visitors will unfold to us and explain. The other matter, the desire to pursue certain courses and not make a degree, is, in the opinion of some of us, likely to be the largest element in the migration of American students to British universities, coupled, as of course it will be, with the third motive, that of getting in touch with a different civilization and social life for the sake of the general humanizing effect of such experience.

I fancy that these latter provisions will be more difficult to meet than the first. The building up of a distinct curriculum in which the end shall be a degree is not so very difficult an undertaking. But the offering of opportunities for special research, which is to be co-ordinated with and made a part of the course which students are taking in American universities is something which will require undoubtedly a very considerable amount of adjustment. There is the adjustment, for instance, of the matter of length of courses, of the prerequisites for certain specific courses; there is the difficulty which comes in all kinds of waste of energy between work in two universities. I am inclined to think that there will be a considerable number of students, if the proper arrangements could be made, who would be ready to take one year abroad toward a Doctor's degree, and that number will be vastly larger than the number who would undertake to work for a Doctor's degree completely in the universities of Britain. There will be many also who are not interested in laboratory research, but who are interested primarily in the more human and less technical aspects of life. I cannot help feeling that in that larger field there will be one of the great services the British universities will be in a position to render, both to those who study for a degree there, and to those who wish to relate special courses there to a degree taken in the United States.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: Dr. Shipley, if you and your colleagues will be quite informal in commenting on these topics as may seem to you good, we shall appreciate it.

DR. SHIPLEY: I don't want to speak myself on No. 1, except to say that so far as we are concerned we have opened our doors. They are not closed to you in the way you may think they are. We have made provisions which I am sure will be welcome to you, and in the work leading to a degree in two years we are prepared to recognize work of one year done in another university. Therefore work of at least one year done in a recognized university will count, and only one year with us is necessary to lead to a degree.

I want to widen No. 2 just a little. I quite agree that we must exchange books and publications of all kinds. Speaking as a zoölogist, I want to exchange specimens. That may not mean much to you, but it means a great deal to the laboratories. We can send you things of no value to us but of great value to Chicago, and you can do the same; and possibly we could extend it to other things, because it is of the utmost importance that we do not allow the German trade in mathematical models and such things to pass into the hands of the Japanese, and that is what is happening. We are not producing in Great Britain much of the material that we want. We have not even begun yet, and I understand that the Japanese have. I think that there is some sort of collusion between those two countries to replace what in future we cannot get from the Germans. I want also to exchange editorials with the papers, but that, of course, is not an academic matter.

I don't think I will say anything about No. 3, although it is very much in my heart.

With regard to exchange professors, I think that that will more or less settle itself. I think that most universities will say: "We would like to have a course in such-and-such a subject," and will look around and do as they have done in the past and arrange for the exchange of professors.

With regard to the University commission, I think that that must be international. Our mission is a broad one; it is not parochial. We want to bring people together, and we want to do it through the youth, because it is the youth that counts, and I think we must not forget our Allies. And here I will say something which I should say under No. 6. If we do anything to educate these young officers—and we are doing it—we must not forget the universities of Italy and France, which have a great deal to teach us. I want to take the widest possible view of these things, because if we Allies can keep together in peace as we have in war, there will be no more war.

We hope to establish in England an office which will be able to grapple with the voluminous literature that the universities shower upon us. We are traveling through this continent on a roving commission, and we can be traced by the piles of literature we are compelled by the shortage of labor to leave behind us.

Finally I want to say two or three words because I am extraordinarily anxious to do something about the demobilization. Already we are receiving in England a considerable number of gentlemen whom we used to call colonials, but we now use the longer expression "from His Majesty's Dominions beyond the seas," which means the same thing. We have a number of them already studying with us. We have prepared a number of short courses for officers, and we are prepared to give after a term or two terms in residence, some sort of certificate signed by the instructor. I might remark that professors are comparatively rare in England. Most teaching is done by men who have not that title. I think that there are only about forty-five in my university. The certificates will be signed by some accredited teachers, and we hope that American universities will recognize them toward degrees.

We want to get hold of these boys. Peace has not come yet, in spite of the evening papers, but you won't want as many of your officers in France as you have now. Let them come to some one of our universities for a few months or perhaps years. The tragedy of these boys' lives, because I know it and have lived among them, is that they have lost their education. Many of them didn't know what education was, and they told me that that was what they felt most in this war. So I do earnestly hope, as I told the war-office people in Washington, that some provision will be offered for your young men to come, whenever they can, to all the universities of the Allies, to get the education they seek, and I want them to go to the place where the man is whom they want to work under, because the man is more important than the place.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: Are there any other comments anyone wishes to make?

PROFESSOR BREASTED: With regard to the exchange of specimens, may I ask whether the laws of the national museums are such that nothing can be alienated? I know it is so in the case of the British Museum.

DR. SHIPLEY: They can't exchange a specimen which has been catalogued, but if you want a few specimens very much and you know

the curator, there should be no trouble. We suffer a great deal of legislation which is quite out of date.

DR. JOLY: With reference to No. 1 and to No. 2, fellowships are referred to here. I understand that your ideal fellowship is a means of enabling a Senior student to pass from one country to another. Personally speaking, I think it would be much better if we could induce undergraduate students to take one of their concluding years in the other country than to influence older students, because my own recollection of undergraduate days is that I made far more friendships as an undergraduate than I ever did as an assistant teacher. I passed many years of my life as an assistant teacher, and there was always a kind of aloofness between me and my students. And I think it applies to all, much as we should like to know them. I would prefer then, if I could, to bring about an interchange of Junior students; I mean not in your Freshman and Sophomore years but in your Junior and Senior years. I think that it would be better, it would be more efficient, to get men of those standards to come over. Therefore I should like to see fellowships—we in England call them exhibitions or scholarships, which means something less exalted than a fellowship—I should like to see something of that kind established, as I think it would do more good.

In connection with that the question arises, under No. 2, Can you co-ordinate your courses in the British and American universities? Can you co-ordinate your courses in the two countries so that a boy could be sent from, say, Trinity College, Dublin, to the University of Chicago, and we would be sure, in Dublin, that his studies were carried on along the same lines that they had followed in Dublin? There is no use in sending a boy over and dislocating his university work for a year in order that he should obtain other benefits. He would return and would probably fail in his examinations when he got back, and nothing would be gained. He would be put back in his university career. For this reason I think that it is important that there should be some kind of co-ordination—which is the word used here—in the courses of the American and British universities.

Talking of Trinity College and the other universities in Ireland, I may say that in the Senior years the courses are generally elective, just as I learned this morning that your courses are here. That is to say, the student elects to take whatever he likes, as long as he confines his work to certain groups of studies so as not to be Jack-of-all-trades and master of none. A boy in Trinity College, Dublin, might be study-

ing experimental sciences in his first two years. He would come over here and be placed in some class among your boys, and his education would be carried on just as it was in Dublin. I think that might be possible, and I would like to hear from the members of this university as to whether there is any insuperable difficulty in taking a boy from one university to another and arranging the instruction so that he would be taught as he would have been in his own university.

That, I think, would be most desirable, and I am inclined to think that there would be no practical difficulty in carrying it out; and if it were done, I would suggest, as I have suggested elsewhere, that the proper way of raising money would be to establish memorial fellowships or exhibitions. There are many who have lost relatives in this war and who would gladly do anything they could to render the war of use to others in this way. What we are here for today is to try to make the results of this war such that Americans will benefit forever after. That is to say, we shall secure an enduring peace through the friendships between the various branches of the Anglo-Saxon race. That is, after all, the end of our mission here. In England the public has taken up that idea, and we could best contribute to carrying it into effect by establishing fellowships in memory of dead relatives—fellowships which would enable young men to pass from England to America, and from America to England. I think it would be practicable, and that is the thought I would like to contribute to this discussion.

Just one more word, under the head of No. 3, provision for distinctly advanced research. I want to point out that in some of our universities at home we can provide material for research which would surely be attractive to American students. In Dublin there is a field for Celtic and Welsh philology which I think is unequaled by any other place in the world. Everything would be placed at your disposal. Our libraries are full of Celtic literature which has never been explored. This and the vast stores of Celtic literature in the Royal Irish Academy would all be at the disposal of your students.

DR. WALKER: On No. 1 and No. 6 I have a few words to say, chiefly on No. 1. I hope I shall be absolved of any desire to speak of my own university. I simply want to say that the conditions for the exchange of students differ in different universities. Therefore I think it will contribute to the discussion if I confine myself to things I know. But I want you to know that Oxford is not the only university which has instituted the new degree. It has been instituted in some of the

northern universities as well. What I would like to point out, in the first place, is this, that what we have done at Oxford—and we did it a year and a half ago—was not merely to institute a new degree to be given under certain conditions. We have done that, but we have done something much more important. We have placed on an entirely new footing the whole organization of research work—the whole system of research work in the university. I would not for a moment wish it to be understood that opportunities for research did not exist before. What I mean is this: the whole system is now properly co-ordinated and properly organized, and a small committee has been appointed whose function it is to co-operate with the various faculties in the university for this very purpose.

When the war is over, a program of studies will be issued. The American student who thinks of coming to Oxford and wishes to know whether a particular professor is lecturing during the current year and what he is giving, what facilities exist, the facilities of teaching, of supervision, of libraries, to whom he should apply to secure admission, etc., will find all that put into a form which can be mastered by an intelligent student in half an hour.

This organization of research work means that the younger students are going to devote a great deal more time and energy to a particular form of work. With regard to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, it is normally a three years' course, but the American student who produces evidence that he has done a year's work at an American university will be excused one year; and in any case, although the period is between two and three years, one of those three years can be spent at another university. He can spend that in London or Paris or elsewhere. The only two conditions required are that he must have graduated at an approved American university and must produce satisfactory evidence from the professor under whom he studied that he is properly qualified for the work.

There are students of one class from America who are likely to avail themselves of this course, and they are the Rhodes Scholarship men, because they will have ample time to take this three years' course. But of course we have always believed that in the majority of cases students coming to Oxford for research work will not come for two or three years. They will not wish to take our degree, but will want to take the degree of their own university. What we have contemplated is that there might be certain students who might wish to come for one year. Now I don't think it will be likely that there will ever be a very

large number of American students who will come to an English university with a view to taking a degree of Doctor of Philosophy, or Doctor of Laws, or whatever it may be called, because I assume that the standard of the degree is going to be a very high one.

What is expected is research work, and research work of a high order. It is most decidedly not going to be a cheap degree. You have to consider, not how many students there are from America who could attain that standard, but how many students there are from America who can afford to come to English universities for two or three years. We have purposely constructed our system in such a way that the student who wishes to come for one year will get good advantages. He will get a certificate from the university, that he attended for one year and attained a certain standard, and we are hopeful that that certificate may be accepted by the American universities as the equivalent of a year's graduate work at home.

It seems to me that there must be a large number of American students who might wish to come to a British university for one year. Take, for instance, a student who is studying English literature in a graduate school here. He might wish to come to an English university for a year, in order that he might know England and learn to understand the background of English literature, or get in touch with the books on the subject, or study some particular feature. And that applies to a number of subjects. It is part of our business to consider the facts in this question and not merely indulge in optimistic views, if our object is to bring together students from the two countries. I think that there are likely to be, after the war, a very considerable number of English students who will wish to come to American universities, but I think it reasonable to suppose that the number who wish to come to American universities for a year will be much larger than those who wish to come for three years. It will apply both ways. Therefore, if there is to be considerable exchange of students we must not limit ourselves to those who come either to England or to America to take the Doctor's degree. They will be a small percentage of the total number who will come. But what I should wish you more clearly to understand is that that has been taken into account in our new system. All we have done to organize research will be at the command of the student who comes for one year as much as of the student who comes for three, and the student who comes for one year will get recognition, different in kind from the one who comes for three years, but recognition, and I hope that our certificate will be honored by your universities.

With regard to No. 6, I think that it must be evident to everybody that nothing can be more important than that our students and yours, who during the war have fought side by side—for in many regiments they have been actually fighting side by side and have shared together all that this war means—should, after demobilization, share the students' life in common. And I assure you that in English universities every possible opportunity will be given to American students who, after demobilization, wish to come to an English university. In the case of my own university an American student who had passed three years in an American university and served a year in the American Army, if he could come to Oxford and enter for a year, would find himself qualified for a degree.

PROFESSOR SMALL: It seems to me that what Dr. Walker has said should be supplemented by one point which has come within my own observation, relative to the small number of men who could be expected to go to Europe—England especially—for a Doctor's degree. It has been distinctly recognized in this country that since the founding of Johns Hopkins University in 1876 the value of a European degree of Doctor of Philosophy to an American student has fallen relatively very rapidly, and within fifteen years I think that it has become the general judgment of men in departments with which I am particularly acquainted —arts and literature—that the possession of a Doctor's degree from a European university, which has usually meant a German university, has not been of itself an advantage. The American student who goes abroad and takes a degree of Doctor of Philosophy expects to teach. The *modus operandi* of getting a place to teach is, in a word, that the president of the institution which has a vacancy to fill applies to some man whom he knows or whom some member of his faculty knows, in some university conferring the degree, to find out not merely the academic qualities of the candidate but the personal equation also, and it has come to be a fact that our American colleges will hardly accept a man as an instructor on the basis of a Ph.D. degree unless there is a sponsor who can give testimony by which the personal value can be equated.

Thus, while we must be impressed by the liberality, the hospitality, of these plans, they seem to be likely to appeal to us in the particular that Dr. Walker has emphasized, namely, the opportunity to take one year of that hospitality, or at the most two; but the undesirability, unless circumstances change very greatly, of taking three years abroad for the Doctor's degree is evident.

MISS SPURGEON: I understand that you have a very large number of women in this university, and their problems are slightly different. In the first place, as Dr. Joly has emphasized, young men in their third and fourth years especially might come with advantage to a United States university, I think. As regards women, I think that my colleague and myself have come to the conclusion generally agreed to by women teachers in the states, that for women it would be very much better for the exchange to take place in their graduate work. We think that then they would be better fitted to take advantage of the exchange and would benefit in many ways, and we would like to see every facility provided for that exchange for women.

With regard to No. 1, the motives controlling the migration of American students, that has already been dealt with by several of the speakers. Dr. Walker took advantage of the illustration I had in mind. If you are studying English literature, you will naturally benefit from studying its background and its home—England. Take an American woman student, for instance, who is studying English literature. One can see at once what an immense advantage it would be to come over to a university such as that in which I teach—London—and study under a professor of such world-wide fame as Professor Kerr.

There is a difficulty, and perhaps a special difficulty, with regard to women, which is raised under No. 3—provision for distinctly advanced research. These graduate students come. The exchange takes place on two sides. If it is to be in any numbers and is to take place regularly and easily, there must be a substantial backing of finance. We must have a system of scholarships, and that is one of the problems to which we must devote ourselves. In England it is a real problem. Many women students, and men too, could not afford out of their own incomes to make the journey and provide their living at their own expense. I think that American students think less of the journey to England than we do of that to the United States, because they are becoming more accustomed to it, but we would like to see the flow becoming larger. I hope that we may get help, both from the state and from private endowment.

With regard to the exchange professorships, that, I think, is very important. You have had it in connection with France and Germany, and we would like to have it established in connection with England. It has never been the practice, or very rarely—I know of only one such case—to have an exchange of women professors. I am sure that we would welcome the exchange, and also we would like to see an exchange

of junior teachers as well as of senior teachers. Here again it is a question of finance, whereby the college concerned could pay the junior teacher's salary, and possibly also the cost of the journey, for a year's residence in another university. The idea would not be to replace another teacher on the system of exchange, but to come as an additional member of the faculty, to learn and assimilate the life of the college, and to give lectures on the subject he or she is a specialist in. We think, some of us, that that would be a very great advantage on both sides.

With regard to the opportunities and the openings for women—the degrees that are open to women in England—it practically amounts to this, that in all the provincial universities the Ph.D. degree is, or is about to be, thrown open to women, and I think that in London it will very soon follow that a woman will be able to come over and work for her Ph.D.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: There has been a good deal of comment on Nos. 2 and 3. Perhaps if Mr. Burton would present some of the points the Senate discussed the other day, it would be of interest.

PROFESSOR BURTON: I feel some hesitation in speaking on this topic for two reasons. Although I have been in England several times, it is a number of years since I was last there. Conditions may have changed since my last visit. Possibly what I may say may seem to be in the nature of criticism, which I would rather not offer. We on this side recognize very fully how rich the collections of Great Britain are, in the matter of both libraries and scientific material, and most of our universities do not hope in the very near future to equal these collections in richness and value. But we have an impression that possibly these collections have not been made quite as easily accessible to the ordinary student—I mean by that the candidate for the Doctor's degree—as would be desirable if there is to be such a migration of American students to English universities as is under consideration.

I remember an incident of some years ago which could not happen, of course, in Great Britain. It illustrates the extreme difference between Continental and American universities in one small matter. Applying to the library for a certain book, I was told that I might leave my application for the book today and would get the book tomorrow. Now here in this university the order is that a book shall be delivered within five minutes of the time when it is called for. That is a very trifling matter, and yet if a student is diligently at work on a problem and needs a book, it is often a very serious thing to have to wait twenty-four hours.

We have the impression also, and it is merely an impression, that it would be advantageous if more students could be given access to the shelves—not only allowed to consult the catalogue but allowed to see the whole collection of books on the subject. I know there are disadvantages. I constantly meet them. We admit a limited number of students to the shelves, and some books are displaced, and there is delay in finding them, but it is our belief that the advantages of consulting the books as they stand on the shelves and learning of books one did not know of before are advantages for which it is worth while to pay a price.

Then we have the impression that it would be desirable that one studying in a given university city should be able as far as possible to get access to the whole resources of that city without having to visit all the libraries; for instance, in Oxford, to go to one central point and learn the possessions of all the university libraries. That is a matter of very great economy of time and so of advantage to the student. And not only so, but it would be an advantage if it were possible for the student in some way to be able to obtain books for study which are not in that university at all.

A student in this university—and it would be true of any other American university—can, of course, make use of any book of any library of the university; but he can also obtain a book from any university library elsewhere, only in the latter case it takes a little longer. We are constantly receiving for our own investigations books from Harvard and sending books to Harvard, and we wonder if it is impossible to think that some such system might be evolved for exchanging books between English universities.

Now, with regard to a subject about which I know very little except through my colleagues—for how is it possible for an American student who will be in England for only a year to ascertain what are the resources of that great city in the matter of libraries, or in the matter of scientific material? Are the doors open to him, and how are those doors opened that he may obtain information? Is it too much to hope that some day there will be a clearing house or a central bureau in which one will be able to ascertain in a general way what is to be secured in all the libraries and universities? I do not mean to say that there should be a complete catalogue, but a complete list of museums and libraries, with information as to the extent of the collections and the specific value of them, and, so far as printed catalogues have been issued, these also.

One wonders whether some day it might not be possible that there should be telephone connection by which one who had learned where the richest collection in a particular field was might ascertain by telephone whether a given book on that specialty was obtainable.

Perhaps these are trifling things, but they present themselves to us as means by which the American student who has not yet attained eminence and therefore cannot claim admission to these various collections on his personal reputation, and who comes to England for only a year, may speedily get in touch with the material and economize the very short time at his disposal.

I want to touch also, for a moment, on the possibility of communication of information about libraries, and the extension of it on an international scale. There are places in this country where attempts are being made to assemble catalogues, not only of the collections of that university but also of the collections of American universities in general. That is made possible by the use, of course, of a common cataloguing system, and of the use of the printed catalogue card. Many institutions are now printing their cards and sending them to other institutions. I raise the question whether the time will come when an American library will be able to obtain such information as to books added to your collections, or titles added to the catalogue, such information to be communicated to us that we may add the lists to the general catalogue. Thus there might possibly grow up in this country a central place, or possibly several central places, of information regarding your great collections. On our side, at least, it would be of very great value.

These are merely suggestions of ways in which the collections of Great Britain, of such immense value to us, might be made more accessible to the American student who comes to England without a reputation which will open your doors, and who has only a limited time to spend in study.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: Mr. Breasted, will you comment briefly on what the members of the Senate had in mind regarding the interest of the more advanced student?

PROFESSOR BREASTED: The matter has been stated better than I could state it now, in a letter which I had the privilege of sending to the Acting President in response to his inquiry about the subjects to be discussed here. But I should like to suggest, in a few words, why it is necessary to have such measures as proposed under the third head here.

The thing I had in mind is the evidence of the fitness of the Doctor's degree to accomplish what it would accomplish. It has become a com-

monplace with us, and our visitors know it, that our young Doctors begin specializing so early that they have lost the opportunity to acquire breadth, such as the student so admirably acquires in British universities.

Now, over against that kind of disadvantage in the Doctor's training we have supposed that we were training at least well-equipped teachers, but Dr. Small has just exploded that bomb, or at least produced evidence to show how far we fail in producing good teachers by turning out Doctors.

We at least have had, however, as we thought, some ground for comfort in the conclusion that if we have failed in giving our young Doctors culture, or in turning out very good teachers, we have certainly turned out excellent investigators and research men. But I think that that conclusion of ours very largely lacks basis. The experience of our department, and I believe it is the same in others, is that in too many cases the young man issuing with the Doctor's hood from our university halls goes forth to assume in the first place the heavier expenses of family life. He begins to pay off the debts for borrowed money to carry on his undergraduate and graduate work. He begins to assume the burden of teaching. He lives in an atmosphere of hurry and anxiety. The atmosphere of quiet and meditation, the atmosphere that encourages the thirst for truth and creates what Carlyle so well referred to as the divine curiosity in man, disappears, and these things are slowly crushed out of his life. He is finally totally submerged in some provincial teaching post, and your embryo Galileo goes through a hopeless metamorphosis to emerge as an inglorious Ichabod Crane.

Some of the natural sciences, of course, have been able to supply their young Doctors with positions permitting the continuance of research; but in the humanities, looking at the whole group of Doctors we have put forth, I am sure we have not turned out the great group of research men who will carry the burden of research for new truth in future as it could be carried, if we could develop our Doctors' training, or the training that should follow that of the Doctor, a little farther. We simply bring a man to the point where he should know how to swim and throw him out into the water, and he is swept out of his depth and stays there and goes down.

What we need is an organization to care for the more brilliant men who have made the Doctor's degree, so that they shall not become Ichabod Cranes. Of course I know that a large number of our Doctors deserve to be Ichabod Cranes and do not deserve to be anything else. We endeavor, by wise devices on the part of departmental heads, to

weed them out, but unfortunately it is not done. A great many men who should never have been allowed to take a Doctor's degree are allowed to take it, whether through departmental pride, or what not; but over against that there is a very large percentage of promising men who go down after the Doctor's degree has been conferred.

What I had in mind, therefore, was, as has been referred to by one of the ladies, the necessity for adequate support. After a brilliant man has obtained his Doctor's degree, give him a liberal fellowship, an income four or five times that of an ordinary American graduate fellowship, a fellowship on which he can marry if necessary, or go abroad if necessary, and enjoy the advantages of all the collections and libraries, about which there has been so much discussion this afternoon, and also enjoy contact with the leading men of science abroad, so that he can gain that attitude toward research which is so necessary in the quest for new truth. Lord Kelvin used to dwell on that, on the necessity for a man's living in an atmosphere of desire for more truth.

I have no doubt that such men as Lord Rayleigh would not want to be troubled by a lot of budding young scientists from America coming into their studies, but there are many men of science who, if a man came to Europe with the imprimatur of a recognized central bureau here, would be willing to grant such a selected research man interviews in which the whole line of research the young man was engaged in and its relationship to other lines of study might be taken up; and such a sympathetic interchange between an older man and a young man is enormously helpful to the younger man. I am bound to say that, from reading the letters of some of the leading men of science, like Huxley, I conclude that the older man has profited also from the stimulus which the young man has brought into the study.

That brings in many important considerations, like the raising of the money and the machinery for the selection of the young men who are to be the future leaders of scholarship and research, and the provision of bureaus on both sides of the water, so that when the men arrive on the other side the opportunities which they need and for which they have come shall be put into their hands in the shortest possible time and with the greatest possible effectiveness.

PROFESSOR STIEGLITZ: As a matter of fact, in my experience with American university men, during the last fifteen years they have been going to Europe mostly for post-doctorate material. Men have gone to Germany to a large extent after they had taken their Doctor's degree in this country, and they have had opportunities to come into close

relationships with the leading professors, who in fact invited them, and I want to raise the question whether the English plan would not provide for access to your great men. I know that our men would enjoy the privilege of working under your great men; but the gates have not been open, and it has been difficult to obtain access to such men.

A second matter is the question of technical schools, like schools for dyeing, etc. The French have excellent schools of that character, as has Germany, and they are exceedingly attractive to American students who, after taking broad technical training, wish to specialize in a particular field. It is, in my judgment, this which holds the greater promise for future relationship between England and the United States. I hope that in the British plans facilities will be provided along these two lines.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: I may have followed this discussion with a bias in my own mind, but I thought that the greatest interest was in the migration of American students eastward. I should like to hear from some of our guests a little about setting the tide in the other direction.

SIR HENRY MIERS: As far as the tide from England is concerned, I really don't believe myself that undergraduate students will come from England to the states. I believe that you will get a number of graduate students and those working for Doctors' degrees. They will come either for experience which cannot be obtained at home, or for the opportunity of working under special teachers whose names attract them. In engineering and mining, economics and administration, they will get an experience which they cannot get at home. I think that advanced students of that kind will be likely to come here, and I think that any information which can be forthcoming on both sides should show what opportunities will be open to students.

At present there is no book giving information to English visitors coming to America for postgraduate work. Neither is there on our side any book which will give you the information you may desire, and I hope that one of the most profitable outcomes of this Mission will be the provision on both sides of the water of handbooks giving such information.

I wish to point out that these new Doctors' degrees have not been established for themselves alone, but that there have been established new courses of advanced studies, not so much in the interest of our own institutions as in the interest of yours. The degree has been created,

not to tempt students across, but merely as the symbol of the new courses of study which have been instituted.

We already have in some of our universities provisions for students to go away to foreign universities and come back and conclude their home course. Those opportunities have been made use of to as great an extent as was expected, but I think that if information can be provided on both sides, of the postgraduate facilities available, you will get from our side a number of teachers, and advanced students will come over here.

I think that it would be extremely important for both sides if we could get a list of the existing possibilities in American universities in the way of fellowships which might be used by English students, and vice versa. I hope that the result will be ultimately that means will be provided to furnish this information, but I hope that if such a bureau is established it will not take the American students and apportion them to the different universities but merely give them all possible information regarding these universities. I think that anything in the way of more and more information being made available will tend to increase the flow of students.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: If we can hear from other of our guests on this particular matter I think it would be interesting to know whether financial arrangements could be made, of the scholarship or fellowship kind, to stimulate the flow of students. As Sir Henry Miers said, the groups which would be interested in coming would doubtless be somewhat small, but I am not sure whether it would be effective to start financial inducements on our part. What would your judgment be about that, whether it is an essential part of the plan either that the universities should establish such funds or that public aid should be given? What has been suggested is the necessity of more lubrication of a financial character.

SIR HENRY MIERS: I think it is very important that funds should be established. We have the Rhodes Fund, and I wish that there might be some such fund to bring English students to America.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: The migration of American students to Germany, which at one time assumed considerable proportions, was for the most part without financial stimulation. There were a few traveling fellowships, but on the whole it was on the individual's initiative, because it was felt that academic opportunities would be greater for a German Doctor. Of course conditions have altered now.

MISS SIDGWICK: I think that for the majority of women in English universities it would be impossible to come such a distance without

financial stimulation. Someone was suggesting just now the different kinds of exchange. In our secondary schools it was found that for a teacher to spend a year, say in Chicago, even though her salary was paid, would mean that she would have to sacrifice a year's salary to pay her way, setting aside the question of living. I think that until women's salaries are raised very considerably in England it would be impossible. I hope that there may be eventually a central fund available for that purpose.

DR. SHIPLEY: We might ask ourselves, How many of the Rhodes scholars would have come to study in England if there had been no Rhodes Scholarships? I don't think that we could possibly expect men to come over without some substantial help. I am very hopeful, however, of someone providing money. I think there will also be established this central office. I believe the students ought at least to be allowed passage money. I think we should try to raise funds, and I would like to be able to go around and see some of my wealthy and big business friends and see if anything can be done.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: I would like to know what Dr. Shorey's opinion is. He is our great "exchanger."

PROFESSOR SHOREY: My impression is that while there is a generally cordial attitude with regard to exchange of professors between English and American universities, there is no great interest in the class. I myself can see that the exchange professorship belongs to that group of things illustrated by the epigram, I am not fishing for fish; I am fishing for fun. The by-product of fish in this instance is the by-product of friendly intercourse.

The Anglo-Saxon or English-speaking races have this fundamental trait in common, that they are good sportsmen and can play the game without this painful obsession of gain. That was, I fear, the chief cause of the partial failure of the German-American exchange. Our German friends—although perhaps that is an unfair thing to say—the authorities in Berlin, were constantly fishing for fish. In their psychological naïvete they assumed that we belonged to the widespread family of the Kaiser's. Now there would not be that difficulty in an Anglo-American exchange. I don't attach any great difficulties to minor details as the result of my experience. The main practical point that I would suggest is that we should always bear in mind two distinct kinds of service and action on the part of exchange professors. If he was a clever after-dinner speaker and a popular lecturer and a good mixer, as we call them, such a man might become a sort of ambassador

to literary and cultured circles. If he was only an eminent or competent specialist in his own particular domain, he would probably serve best by slipping into his unobtrusive niche and teaching a regular course in the ordinary work of the university to which he was assigned.

I think it would be well to keep in mind those two kinds of service and to anticipate in advance the kind of service an individual would be expected to render, and not make anyone uncomfortable because he could not render both services.

I don't know what American science and scholarship could offer to England. One would have to leave that to the courtesy and definition of our English friends. But back in 1911 I could point out the detriments to American scholars from contact with Germany. There is the detachment from your own environment and also the contact with the culture of a foreign country, and there is the loss by contact during a number of years with a foreign and more or less unfamiliar language like German; that would be absent in the case of England.

Our great trouble has been the divorce of our scholarship from our culture. Greater association with the British universities would help to unite those things. But after all, as has been suggested by the first speaker, the main object of an exchange professorship is that which transcends all other considerations—the sacred cause of Anglo-Saxon unity and friendship, on which I am sure you all are agreed depends the leadership of peace and good-will among mankind.

Sir Henry Jones: I thank you for that thought. By means of our universities we want to bring the minds and the purposes of our two peoples together. I think if we keep that before our minds with the same earnestness that we keep in mind the things that pertain to our own industrial and mercantile success—making money, to be plain—we shall find that the obstacles in the way of interchange can easily be remedied.

The friendships of a young man's student days are priceless. Old men who have been students, meeting in old age, shake hands with a warmth that is quite unusual. The road is open, speaking generally, to all the universities in Great Britain for your students, whether they want to take a degree or not. You have only to look at our calendars to find that that is the case, and no doubt your own universities are just as open to our students. We must find out about one another.

Then again, we question whether money will be necessary or not. Do you know anything that will go without money? Of course it is self-evident that help is necessary to students on both sides, and it is

also evident that if we university men and women are equally resolute in doing all we can to bind the two races together, we shall go about it to see that money is obtained.

It seems to me that the greatest thing in the world is the influence exercised by the universities. If I could form the soul of the universities I think it would not take long to form the soul of the nation. We need an instructed citizenship. No matter whether it is better libraries or how to find some new book, the important thing is the spirit of loyalty to great ideals. We have left to the care of accident the fostering of the spirit of citizenship to bind the two peoples together. What a help to our university men it has been to have known the greatness of the citizenship of England, how generation after generation has given its wealth of endeavor for the nation, and what we owe to the past. And our dead in this war, in which you have been fighting our battle of liberty as well as your own, will bind us more closely together.

I didn't want to speak this afternoon because I knew I would speak too long. I know that we shall study nothing with greater interest than the great social forces which will join our two peoples together, and I do believe that if these two splendid peoples stand together we shall not hear much more of the miseries that are burdening thousands of homes today. And if we will keep the purposes of this Mission in our view at all times, we shall have the money needed to carry them out, and the difficulties will be overcome.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: We have several other topics on our program for the afternoon but it has come now to five o'clock, and I am sure we shall continue them to better advantage if we go below and have a cup of tea.

The party thereupon passed to the floor below, where tea was served by the women of the Faculties. At half-past seven a dinner in honor of the Mission was held in the refectory, Ida Noyes Hall. At the speaker's table were the members of the Mission, the speakers on behalf the University of Chicago, and Mrs. Harry Pratt Judson, Mrs. James Rowland Angell, Mrs. Edith Foster Flint, Miss Elizabeth Wallace, Miss Marion Talbot, and Mr. La Verne Noyes. After the addresses, those present sang "God Save the King" and "The Star-Spangled Banner." The speeches are given herewith.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: I am sure that I reflect the feeling of everyone connected with the University in greeting most heartily tonight our guests from Great Britain, and in saying that it is an unusual pleasure

and a very great honor to be able to welcome them to our home here at the University of Chicago. I say our *home*, not only because it is in fact our home, but because they come in a distinctly homelike spirit, and we hope that while they are with us they will feel that they are at an academic fireside.

Their mission is, I think, wholly unprecedented, in that it is the first official university mission ever sent to us by the British government, and that, although an official mission, it comes with this cordial personal and family spirit.

I know we are all resolved that, whatever else happens, after the peace comes we shall not lose the most perfect fruits of it by failing in any particular to make permanent the good which has already come to us from the war. And among these benefits the greater sympathy, the greater knowledge, the greater appreciation which we Americans have gained for our British and French and Italian brothers and sisters are certainly not the least.

This Mission comes, not solely to deal with the practical questions of how we may more wisely and more fully enjoy one another's academic advantages, but in this larger spirit to open the hearts of our British brothers and sisters to our own and to invite us to enter into the old household anew. I am sure that you will feel this tone when they come themselves to speak, as presently they are to do.

I am going to call first on one of our own number, a representative of the old classical tradition which we borrowed from our British fathers and mothers, the gentleman who is the head of the Department of Greek, representing a language that is not at all so dead as the opponents of classics would have us believe, and one which never will be very dead so long as scholars of this variety pursue it. I present our most exchanged of exchange professors, Dr. Paul Shorey.

PROFESSOR SHOREY: During the nightmare of the last four years the humanities, in every sense of that all-embracing Ciceronian word, have been compelled to give place to efficiency. It is, however, our fervent prayer and faith that the restoration of world-peace will also restore to their due precedence the humanities of the heart, brushed aside perhaps for a little by the rough exigencies of war. These humanities of the heart have never been forgotten in the England of Florence Nightingale and in the France of Vincent De Paul, and, if we dare not say quite as much of the Germany whose god was enthroned amid Zeppelins, as Burns prayed that Auld Nick might even take a thought and mend his ways, so we may be permitted to dream that a new Germany may rise

to a nobler conception of what constitutes true *Weltmerk*. Humanity cannot live forever on this bitter bread of hate.

But what of the humanities of the mind? I do not mean by that term the conjugation of Greek or Latin verbs, or the doctrine of the iota subscript, or even the broad, comprehensive study of the beautiful civilizations of Greece and Rome that have been my consolation. I mean none of these specialties, except in so far as they are essential constituents of a larger whole—the history of the human spirit, the memory of its own past, that distinguishes and discriminates the human being from the brute; the critical, the sympathetic, the imaginative study of all the products of the human mind from the time that the creature out of Lethe scaled the shining stairs of evolution and achieved a mind that we can at all recognize as distinctly human. It is my hope and faith that these things, which you all understand and which it is idle for me to characterize anew, will have their due place in the vast restorations and reconstructions to which humanity is already looking forward with inexhaustible and inextinguishable hope.

A too-quick despairer might see many reasons to doubt it. There is, first, the stress that restoration after war lays upon immediate, practical utilities. There is the overwhelming absorption of the human mind in the thrilling panorama of the present that makes it indifferent to all the glorious panorama of the past. And then there is the thought, that we hardly dare dwell upon, of our losses. The *Critic* announced two years ago that it had already lost half of its redactors and more important contributors. The young German boys to whom just five years ago today I was teaching Aristotle in the University of Berlin lie dead or are even yet attempting to kill the young British Aristotelians on the Western Front. Professor M——, instead of publishing in his inaugural address the papers of his most brilliant graduate students, is writing their obituaries. And the classical journals that come to us from different quarters of the world are pathetically thin. Our tradition is steadily interrupted and broken through. It is not so, quite, with the great tradition of those sciences which men prize as the minister and interpreter of nature, as we know it in our modern pride of nature's mastery. They too have had losses of incalculable potentialities, but they have not been crushed by the despairing sense of their own needlessness and futility for the immediate purposes of the day, and they have not felt helpless before the vast wave of popular feeling that proclaims them helpless.

They have been stimulated by the rise of new problems and have been strengthened by the demand upon their faculties of even greater

services. Their tradition stands firm, their work is unbroken and uninterrupted, and if they should choose to maintain that there is an irreconcilable conflict between their ideals and ours, if they should insist that these reconstructions to come will have no place for the things for which we wish to stand, and if they should use ruthlessly, to the utmost, their advantage before the bar of present popular opinion, there is very little that the classicist could say in reply; for science is secure, and there is none that can question the precedence of science in the world today. Science is the very bread and staff of life of the modern world, both in peace and in war.

Do they wish, however, to make us try the experiment of living by bread alone? Do they wish to breed up a race of university students who will open the New Testament solely to force a lie upon St. Paul by a misinterpretation of his text, and turn to the pages of Homer merely to compare the myths of the Greeks with those of the barbarians of the Fiji Islands? That was not the temper of Huxley in the days when science had to fight to win due recognition. It is not, I believe, the temper of real scientists today, compared with those whom I might charitably designate as the walking and talking delegates of science. It is not the temper of the American millionaires who built the school which crowns the Janiculum at Rome. It is not the temper of the Trustees of the University of Chicago, who, in the year when the European war broke out, built on the campus of this University a building devoted to the study of the classics, from which is issued from quarter to quarter one of the few classical journals which have not been compelled to lower their standard. It is not the temper of that England which in the very whirlwind of battle has completed the splendid edition of Jebb's Sophocles and the monumental edition of Cook's great monograph on Zeus, and pushes on, from volume to volume, the *Cyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics*. And it is our faith and hope that it will not be the spirit of that new world of reconstruction and restoration to which we are all looking forward with mingled hopes and fears.

I am unwilling, however, to sit down without saying one word to our guests, or rather a word evoked in my own heart by their mere presence here—by a sort of catalectic action, if Professor Stieglitz will permit me to use the expression in this connection. I have not forgotten Thackeray's satire on the effervescence of American after-dinner oratory, and I am not unmindful of the evening when Kipling sat stunned under a coruscating thunder of blatherskite and marveled that one of our own race should be made to stand up and be plastered with praise in our own country.

A great deal has happened, however, since those days when Americans and Britons were afraid to reveal their inmost sentiments. I am not going to praise my country, but am simply going to take this as the first occasion in my life, in the presence of English friends, to say in public just what I feel about their country. It has not always been easy for an American to say what he thought of England, at least before an audience composed largely of what used to be called German-Americans, or Irish-Americans. But we are all Americans now. The foolish text-books which brought about misunderstandings in some minds never made the slightest impression on my mind. I knew as a boy that the England of Shakespeare and Milton, Burke and Fox, Bryce and Jowett, was my country too, and I can now say it to an American audience without any sense of apprehension. And that is one of the few consolations of the great tragedy now drawing to a close.

I remember four years ago last August, when I stepped from a steamer on to English soil, how the lines of Swinburne came to my mind:

> England, Queen of the waves, whose green inviolate girdle enrings thee round,
> Mother, fair as the morning, where is now the place of thy foemen found?
> Still the sea that salutes us free proclaims them stricken, acclaims thee crowned.

And during the long three years when America stood secure behind the guard of the British navy, waiting, trying to get together its heterogeneous population and make up its collective mind, my love and my admiration still were growing, and now at last an American can look a British guest in the eye and tell him what he really feels about that ideal England which in the fiery test has proved herself to be the England of sober, waking fact.

> England, mother of men and states, at last
> Thy giant daughter knows thee as thou art,
> Keeping the faith of that heroic past,
> Meeting the present need with pulsing heart,
> Laying a million sons beyond our praise,
> On war's red altar, with unquivering lip,
> Making of empire a school to raise
> The subject peoples to full fellowship.
> Never again shall that estranging sea
> Dissolve the bond that holds us to the rock
> Of English speech and law and liberty;
> The triple bar made strong against the shock
> Of war-crazed anarchs, while with eyes that mock
> Their hates, we face the future of the free.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: It is a common antithesis among commentators to set our classical traditions over against our scientific traditions, and to urge that modern education is scientific, in a sense in which that implies an antithesis to humanism. Personally I have always felt that such an antithesis was fictitious in fact as well as in theory, and our own representative exponents of science considered it to be in large measure fictitious. I am quite certain that the speaker upon whom I shall now call, as representing the distinctly scientific tradition among us, reflects this enlightened attitude, which regards our scientific tradition as in no sense merely displacing the older classical and humanistic tradition, but as taking up into itself much of what we believe to be of most permanent value in that and presenting it again with new surroundings, new meanings, new background, and new outlook, as perhaps the great contribution which we may hope in our own country to make to general educational progress. I take peculiar pleasure, therefore, in calling upon the next speaker, not only because I think he embodies so admirably this point of view and this tradition, but also because of the conspicuous sense in which he represents a large fraction of our American public—a man of German parentage who, from the day Belgium was invaded to this, has never hesitated for an instant in his vision of the right and his courage and outspoken condemnation of the wrong, a man who is in every sense an example of our most loyal and high-minded American citizenship, the president of the American Chemical Society, the head of our own Department of Chemistry, Professor Julius Stieglitz.

PROFESSOR STIEGLITZ: I did not come tonight prepared to take up the subject of the sciences versus the classics, or the classics versus the sciences. I would say, however, that if Professor Shorey had happened by chance to study physics or chemistry, he would have found there that the highest appeal is made to that poetic imagination which attracted him to Greek. I think that a man of science who is at all successful must have a high sense of poetic imagination, because we deal with worlds which we do not see, we deal with forces which we cannot weigh. All our conclusions are based on imaginary factors, which are part of our Greek heritage. Therefore, although we pursue different objects, I feel that the spirit is the same.

It is a special privilege on this happy occasion to have the opportunity of extending to our honored guests from the universities of Great Britain a cordial welcome on behalf of the men of science of our University; for the opportunity gives us the rare chance to pay frank tribute

before the representatives of Great Britain to the unusually heavy debt which science, nay the world as a whole, owes to British scientists. Our cousins of the tight little island are not given to vaunting their great deeds, either in peace or in war. Whether from modesty, from conscious pride, or from a simple sense of duty performed, the British, it has seemed to me, take their great men, as their great deeds, almost as matters of course. I can never forget the impression made upon me in reading in the life of Charles Darwin how toward the end of his life a great reception was tendered him in London and how, when he entered the hall and the audience with cheers rose to its feet, the great man turned around to see for whom the great reception was intended! That modest trait has somehow always seemed to me typical of the attitude of your great men of science toward their own achievements. And yet how great is the debt the world owes to your scientists! It is no exaggeration, I believe, to say that your Darwins, your Wallaces, and your Huxleys, naturalists so fitly represented by their modern successor, your Dr. Shipley, will in the ages to come to be considered to mark a period of transformation in the thought of man, in the social conscience of mankind, not one whit less profound in their influence than the writings and teachings of Luther were in their day in the spiritual life of the world! With all the stern emphasis of scientific truth, the realization is unquestionably coming more and more clearly to mankind that its moral and physical welfare and future are in its own hands, not subject to chance, but subject to the inevitable, eternal laws of heredity, of environment, and of the personal rectitude of the individual. Society cannot escape this new consciousness of its duty, the inevitable sequel of the teachings of your great naturalists.

No less great is our debt in the realm of the physical sciences. From the teachings of your Dalton of the atomic structure of matter to the brilliant discoveries in our own generation of your colleagues, Professor Soddy and the late Sir William Ramsay—who, I understand, Sir Henry, was indebted to you for a suggestion which led to one of his greatest discoveries—chemistry, the fundamental science of the transformation of matter, has had vast new realms of thought and power opened to it by British leaders. If possible the debt of physics, the sister fundamental science of the transformation of energy, is even greater, for your Newtons, Faradays, Maxwells, Kelvins, and the brilliant galaxy of your modern physicists, J. J. Thomson, Rutherford, Rayleigh, and Bragg, so worthily represented by our distinguished guest Dr. Joly, the inventor of modern color photography, have taken us into the very heart of the structure and forces of the universe as well as of the atom, to the profound satisfaction

of every scientist, in a way that has been indeed a wonderful stimulus in every branch of scientific endeavor.

The debt is too great to delineate on this occasion. I have dimly outlined a part of it to give weight to my assurance on behalf of the Science Faculty of the University of Chicago that we shall most heartily welcome the opportunity of co-operating with our British brethren, to stand shoulder to shoulder with you, in the realm of science and education, to preserve liberty for all time, as we are just now co-operating in arms in the great struggle to re-establish liberty! I wish to give this assurance with the more emphasis because most of us must be quite convinced that the great reconstructive forces of the world, the statesman no less than the engineer, the sociologist no less than the manufacturer and the agriculturist, will turn to the wisdom of science for the healing of the terrible wounds this war has inflicted on society. To restore a measure of happiness and usefulness to the crippled and disabled men, to prevent the wastage of our bravest and noblest from permanently deteriorating the race, to stay the ravage of disease in enfeebled peoples, to offset the heavy load of debt by the development of more productive, more economical processes of mining, manufacture, and agriculture, and by the salvage of waste—these are a few of the great problems of the scientist in which America will gladly join her forces with those of her British friends!

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: It is now our great privilege to hear from our guests, and I have the pleasure to introduce first Dr. Arthur Everett Shipley.

DR. SHIPLEY: We owe you all a very deep debt of gratitude for the kindness with which you have received us, the kindness which we find in every university we visit. We have hardly been in America thirty days, but our secretary informs me that we have visited thirty institutions. I want especially to emphasize that the more we visit, the better we seem to be treated. When it was agreed that we should all speak, we hoped that we might all speak at once; it would save so much time.

Not being an orator, I propose to speak in a very brief way. With regard to what has been said about the classics and science, I have always deprecated the somewhat bitter discussion of their respective merits. I think that there is more than enough room in this great world of ours for both. I recognize that such scientific eminence as Cambridge has achieved in the last half-century is largely due to the support which in its struggling infancy it received from classical men,

which was, I think, more substantial than the help received from the mathematicians. I think that too much has been made of this question. A popular novelist in England, who has the ear of the press, recently proposed that the study of Latin and Greek should be replaced by the study of Hindustani and Russian. It is well known that there is little or no literature in Hindustani, and I am not sure that even Russian would supply the spiritual and intellectual comfort that Greek offers.

I understand that your national Constitution forbids both cruel and unusual forms of punishment. Yet day after day we are made to get up and talk when we have absolutely talked ourselves out. No longer than three or four hours after I had landed on these shores I found myself making a speech, and I have been speaking ever since. Two days ago we had an interesting experience. Before ten o'clock on one day we each of us had made four speeches, twenty-eight in all. Thus we go through this continent. I don't know whether all of you are acquainted with the works of George Eliot, but those of you who are will remember Mrs. Cadwallader in *Middlemarch* was asked how she liked her husband's sermons. She said that she always liked the end. Now that is the part of an after-dinner speech which I like, and so here will I make an end.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: It is a source of very great gratification to us at the University of Chicago to find that the commission has represented on it the ladies of Great Britain. At the University of Chicago women have filled a large part of our horizon. They are at the present moment filling a larger one than ever, because the women in the college are pretty much all that is left of the college as we knew it before the first of October. The University has always had the utmost respect for the position which they hold in our community, and has been glad to develop in every possible way their interests. I take great pleasure, therefore, in presenting Miss Caroline Spurgeon, of Bedford College, London, and a little later I shall call on the other lady of the Mission.

MISS SPURGEON: I should like, at the outset, to disclaim having had any part in drawing up this program. It has been no invention of mine. I should have been only too delighted to have been a passive and interested listener to the speeches of my colleagues, and not to have suffered the moment of torture, which can hardly be surpassed, just before one is called upon to get up. That moment, however, is now over for me, and I feel better than when I began. In spite of all the speaking that has taken place since we reached this continent, I do not think I ever get quite hardened to it; but even so I am very glad indeed

to have this opportunity tonight to express my appreciation of the extraordinarily kind and cordial reception we have had here today, and of the very fruitful and interesting experiences that we have had in the few hours at our disposal.

Vice-President Angell has said something about the objects of our Mission. He put it extremely well, and I think perhaps the best way I can spend the few minutes allotted to me is to give you a general idea of my conception of the genesis and object of our Mission. I look at it somewhat in this way: This war—which happily, we believe, is now coming to an end—this war, as you know, fell upon us in England with the most extraordinary suddenness. It was as a thunderbolt out of an absolutely clear, blue, summer sky, quite literally the most beautiful summer sky, I believe, that England has ever known.

It was a terrific shock. That, of course, in itself gave us an experience different from yours. I think that those who have lived through it will never forget what it felt like. Old landmarks were swept away, and chaos seemed to have come again. All the things we cared for appeared no longer to matter, and other things took their place. That shock, I think, brought with it two main results; at least, that is the way it has struck me. The first was a change in values; the second was a quickening of the imagination, a heightening of the national imagination.

Now, in my view, this Mission is really the outcome of those two things. Let me try to explain a little more fully what I mean. First, the change in values: The things we had formerly valued seemed to be no longer of any account. Wealth, fame, material well-being, all those things were swept away, and in their place we found that courage, unselfishness, devotion, were the things that mattered supremely. Then there came a little later an awakening in England to the value of education. We began to ask ourselves if our system of education was as perfect as it could be, and if we could do anything to better it, and we began to reconstruct it.

Secondly, there came this quickening of the imagination. That showed itself in many ways in England. I think one of the most interesting was the extraordinary hunger for poetry that began to be felt. That is a very remarkable feature. It began in the second year of the war and has been increasing ever since—the demand for the older poets especially. I made some inquiry among the great bookshops in London during the second year of the war, and I found that one of the poets most in demand was Wordsworth, which is interesting, and

other poets also were enormously in demand. There seemed to be a rebirth of desire for poetry. And in addition to that there followed the extraordinary output of poetry among our own soldiers and sailors. Go into any bookshop in England, and you will find piled up these little slender volumes of verse. When I see them, I feel very proud and I handle them with reverence. They are not all good poetry—some of them are not poetry at all—but they are wonderful expressions of what I speak of—the quickening of imagination. But after all it is not surprising that the result of the war should be a desire for poetry and an increased output of it, for poetry is the expression of emotional experience.

You will think I am wandering away from the object of our Mission, but I do not think I am. I said that one of the changes of values was a change in our attitude toward education. Further, I believe that we are here as the result of the stirring of our national imagination, on an ideal quest. A great ideal is at the back of it. We don't always speak about it; we have spoken today a great deal about other details, about the exchange of students, about degrees, about finance, but that is not because we are unaware of this great ideal at the back of our quest, but rather because we are very conscious of it, and so we are silent about it perhaps because of our queer, dumb British way.

We have come, as you know, to inquire into your methods of education in the states, to see what we can gather from what we learn, to improve our methods, and to arrange in any way that we can for interchange of students and teachers, because we believe that if we can draw together the intellectual youth of the two nations we will draw the two nations together, cementing them in a friendship that cannot be broken. And I, for one, and I am sure I may say the other members of the Mission, will do our very utmost to work out the details which will make this interchange possible.

I think sometimes that this war has come like a great tempest, a devastating storm; and like a tempest it has not been wholly destructive. Like Shelley's west wind, it is sweeping away all the old, dead things, but it is at the same time quickening and scattering the seeds of a new birth, and if out of this high tragedy of nations there shall be born an enduring understanding and amity between the two great English-speaking peoples of the world, then indeed our soldiers and sailors will not have died in vain.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: To most of us, I fancy, the British universities still mean Oxford and Cambridge; that, in part, because it is

to the beautiful Oxford and Cambridge buildings that the ordinary tourist goes, and it is there that he tries to saturate his soul with the spirit of those places, so beautiful and persuasive are they. We know, as a matter of intellectual information, that there are other universities, Scottish universities that some of our traveling scholars have attended as students, others as visiting professors, from which they returned with gorgeous robes, the envy of the rest of us; we know there are institutions of learning in the British manufacturing cities and in Ireland, but after all it is chiefly of Oxford and Cambridge we think when we use the phrase "the British universities."

We are told, with what degree of truth I am not prepared to say, that in the great provincial cities like Birmingham and Manchester there are universities which in many particulars far more resemble our own institutions than do Oxford and Cambridge. It is said that the resemblance to our great state universities is in many respects very striking. In any event, we are glad to have represented on the commission and with us this evening Sir Henry Miers, vice-chancellor of the University of Manchester, whom I now have very great pleasure in calling upon.

SIR HENRY MIERS: We came here to hear you speak, and when we arrived we found your stenographers on hand waiting for us to speak! I have been immensely impressed in going through this university by the splendid equipment you have here in the way of buildings and laboratories, and I could not help thinking of the immense amount of learning collected here, what a great amount of opportunity is given to those who wish to learn, and how remarkably well blessed are your students in coming to a university such as this.

When I go to any university I can't help asking myself the question, whether we are all of us doing what we should with these magnificent buildings and lecture-rooms and opportunities, and are we doing as much for the world outside us as we should do? In other words, are we spreading it, are we letting the general public get all the advantages that it should get from the presence in its midst of a great university?

I am reminded here of a little story. I remember being told some years ago that on a wet day very few came to attend a lecture at the university, and the lecturer noticed one man, with his head between his hands drinking in every word with an expression of unusually deep interest, and when the lecture was finished the man still remained there. The lecturer went up and spoke to him, because he evidently seemed so interested. He began to ask the man questions, and his listener informed

him that as it was a wet day he had decided to come inside to wait for his cab! So you see that those who seem most attentive sometimes are not those who are the best students.

However, there is a work in which the great civic universities such as the one I represent are especially interested at the present time, a work involving a new movement in Great Britain which I hope will very soon establish itself in this country. We have endeavored to bring the advantages of our university to the people at our doors. In the north of England the extension lectures have ceased to play the important part that was expected. That is because the universities went out to the workers and offered them lectures on all kinds of interesting subjects; but it has been discovered recently that the working populations have a very real need of true university education, and they have in the last few years come to the university and asked us to give them what they want. They asked that they should have some voice in planning the courses, and that they should take part in them as fellow-learners with the teachers.

There has thus grown up during the past ten years a large group which is getting real university education. Working-class people, after a hard day's work, undertake for three years in succession to attend evening classes, which are lectures followed by discussion, with essays prepared by the learners, in order that they might become wiser, better, and happier citizens. That is a movement which I believe will help to remove many dangers and inequalities in the present readjustment of the social structure.

We are here to stimulate co-operation between American and English universities, and I hope that as time goes on we may co-operate along these lines, as well as along others, to open the door for these people so that they may come in and share with us the privileges we possess.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: I have great pleasure in calling next upon the representative of another provincial university, Miss Rose Sidgwick, of the University of Birmingham.

MISS SIDGWICK: I feel that we have laid upon us tonight an exceedingly difficult task. We are here, I suppose, to justify our existence in America at a time when everyone's thoughts are running on the three great related topics, war, peace, and reconstruction. As we came last night to Chicago, the news burst upon us that peace had already arrived. That, as we know, was premature. Psychologists tell us that when people are undergoing tests of their response to various stimuli there

are always some people who respond a little before the stimulus is applied.

Under that stress of new emotion I began to wonder whether our Mission would be any longer wanted, whether there would be a place at all for a universities mission, and after some thinking upon the subject it occurred to me that after all the very idea of a university is, in a sense, a justification of itself in such times, and really in all times, for a university is an expression on a small scale of that idea of the whole which is the political and social phantom which flits in front of us, and on account of the wounding of which, four years ago, we have been suffering ever since. Until that unity is realized again, we shall never rest.

We would have you realize that our Mission here means more than patriotism; it means a desire to reach out to this international unity which is, I believe, the hope of the future. Well, someone may say, that is all very well, but in appealing to the university as the type of this idea you are proving too much. Universities have their faults, as I know very well, and I should like to say how deeply some of us feel —too deeply, perhaps—the strictures leveled against our libraries in the Old World. I hope that we may do something to repair those errors in the future. But the university stands for an idea of general good which will be absolutely necessary in the coming time.

The other day we were watching with wonder that magnificent fall of Niagara, and we noticed the sea birds skimming about perpetually where the water falls, and I asked a man what they wanted, and he said that a number of fish were broken in coming over the falls, and the birds were after the fish. And so it may be that in the times to come there will be individuals who will be trying to see what can be got in the cataclysm of this time, and that is something we shall have to guard against.

We are proud to represent the idea of unity and also, if we may, to add something to bring together the various universities of the English-speaking world. The university is a complex whole. As Bryce said, it is a kind of large building covering lesser buildings, like your Constitution; and we should like to help to bring about, not in any literal sense of the word, a union of universities, a common spiritual building, in which university people will find themselves, as your Vice-President has invited us to do tonight, at home. And if anything can be done toward that end, it must be done by individual contact. That is why we hope so strongly that your young people will come to us and

that ours will go to you, because it is only those personal relations which can in the future protect us against misunderstandings. We hope that when young Americans have lived in England and young Englishmen in America the danger of collision will be greatly reduced. And so I hope that the individual contacts may become, as it were, the roots of those kindly thoughts which will bind together the shifting sands and make the best barriers against the incursions of such tidal waves as that which the world has just suffered.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: We have long, as Americans, appreciated and been proud of the opportunities which Oxford and Cambridge have given to our American students, and it is a peculiar pleasure to call upon the next speaker, who I am certain is second to none in the energy and skill with which he has brought about conditions in Oxford which have made it possible for our American students to study there with success and with the feeling of being at home. I am happy, therefore, in introducing Rev. Edward M. Walker, of Queen's College, Oxford.

DR. WALKER: I accept your invitation. At this moment I too am at home. I am looking out of a window, I am looking across a garden, and I see beyond the garden and between the trees two buildings standing in relief against the sky. One is a spire and the other is a dome. It would be difficult to imagine buildings more dissimilar in size and age. The spire dates from the thirteenth century; it was built in the reign of King Edward the First, and is adorned with the pomegranates of Castile, the symbol of his consort, Queen Eleanor. The dome was built in the middle of the eighteenth century. It is, of all views, the view I know best. The spire is the spire of St. Mary's Church, and the dome is the dome of Radcliffe Library.

Now the strange thing is this, that while those two buildings are so dissimilar, yet as one views them he is conscious not of discord but of harmony. They go so well together, each would be poorer without the other. When you ask how it is that a building of the eighteenth century fits in so well with a building of the thirteenth, you find it is that each of these two buildings in its way satisfies the first two conditions of all great architecture—sincerity and proportion, the sense of measure and the sense of truth.

In the most unfortunate days of the past I imagine it would have gone over anybody's head to maintain that the difference between England and America, between the English character and the American, was in any degree comparable to this spire and this dome. Yet such, I think, would be a fair comparison.

This is my first visit to America, and of course when one finds one's self in new surroundings one is always looking about to discover differences, and when I looked about I found them very easy to discover. I found them in the coins and postage stamps and in the countryside houses. In fact, so long as I was content to let the view rest upon the surface I found differences everywhere. But once the view penetrated beneath the surface I found not difference but identity. And put the differences between the two as high as you please, still isn't it clear that these two peoples, these two nations, these two characters, were meant to go well together? They harmonize so well, if for no other reason than this, that that which is characteristic of both peoples, both characters, is precisely this sense of proportion and this sense of truth.

We in England are rather proud, I think, of our common sense, our recognition of facts, and I think that most of us in England who know anything of Americans and America would admit that we find precisely that same sense of fact over here; in other words, there is no conviction so deep-seated both in the American and in the English mind as the great conviction that we cannot alter the nature of things by wishing them different. As for the sense of proportion—the sense of measure—why, has that not carried us in England, again and again in our history, through perils that would have proved fatal to any other people? Our sense of compromise carried not only us but our ancestors and yours through many a peril. And that sense of measure, that feeling for proportion, isn't it written in every line and sentence of your famous Constitution?

Now, ladies and gentlemen, I suppose that everyone one meets at the present time is asking one the question, What do you think, or what do the people in England think, are going to be the consequences of this war? What is going to happen when the war is over? This morning, just as I was about to start to visit this university, I was delayed by an interview with a reporter, and he began to ask me a number of questions, not about the future of humanity, but about the future of the university—Oxford—and he started off at once with the question, "I suppose you would admit that one certain result of this war will be the democratization of your universities?" I asked what he meant. "Oh," he said, "I suppose there will be another Ruskin Hall in Oxford."

Well, now, one hesitates to venture on any prophecy as to what is going to happen after the war, because almost every prophecy of what was likely to happen during the war has been falsified. But as has

already been indicated by one speaker, when peace comes we may be confronted with another foe not less perilous to the interests of civilization than the foe whom we have just defeated. I don't think that for some time in the near future autocracy is going to be one of the great enemies of the human race, but I am disposed to think there is going to be another enemy not less to be dreaded, and that is anarchy.

And now if that prophecy should be correct, I cannot help thinking that the two countries which are likely to offer the most successful resistance to that enemy will be England and America, if for no other reason than this, that it is precisely in England and America that this sense of proportion and this sense of truth are strongest. Those of us who have been in England lately know perhaps better than you in America know how much we owe in serious crises to the moderating influence of your own labor interests.

But there are two other consequences of the war, I think, which we may safely venture to predict. The first is this: I think it is quite certain that one consequence of the war will be that the language which is spoken in England and America will be in a sense the universal language; not, of course, in the sense that it will be the only language in the world, but in this sense, that it will be the modern language which everybody will learn who does not belong to the English-speaking race. Unfortunately my memory goes back far enough to recall the Franco-German War. I was in school when the war came to an end. I remember how remarkable was the result of that German success. I remember that Otto's *German Grammar* was introduced into the schools and we were all set to learning German—the masters just one lesson ahead of the pupils. German was more widely studied abroad than English. But now that is changed. Already, in India and Japan, and in China to some extent, the language of instruction is English. Thirty years hence I take it that everybody who seeks to address mankind at large will write in English. That is one of the two results which the war will bring to the English-speaking race—I hope that the war has killed forever our old friend the "Anglo-Saxon."

There is another result which the war will bring with it, and that is an opportunity, I think, to the universities of America. Since I have been here and have seen your universities one conviction has been steadily growing in my mind, and that is that after the war your universities are going to become international in a sense and in a measure in which they have not been international in the past. I am told that when the war broke out there were 5,000 foreign students in American

universities. The day is not far distant when you will look upon 5,000 foreign students in American universities with a sort of humorous surprise. That number will be multiplied many times over. Just think of it—the number of students who will be coming to your universities from the Near East, Japan, and China will be greatly on the increase. Students from those countries went largely to Germany, but they will not do so after the war; they will come to America. There will be infinitely more students coming from the countries of South America than in the past. And do you suppose that the only students who will come from the Old World are the students from England? I believe that you will have students from all European countries, and therefore I believe that one of the results of the war will be that your universities will become international in character to an extent which none of us can realize at the present moment. Those will be two great opportunities.

The opportunities of the English-speaking race and the opportunities of your universities will be opportunities that will carry with them responsibilities correspondingly great—tremendous responsibilities—and I think that one can only hope and trust that the voice of the English-speaking race and the voice of your American universities will speak the message of proportion and of truth.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: The next speaker undoubtedly supposes himself to be a stranger to us, but he is not. The English settlers came first, we are told, to our Atlantic seaboard and settled that coast, but after it was well settled, the Irish, as you know, came in and took political command, and we have been living under their government more or less ever since, and for the most part we have found it very agreeable. It has saved us a great deal of trouble and responsibility, and I therefore take great pleasure in introducing an eminent representative of the race under which we live so happily, Professor John Joly, of Trinity College, Dublin.

PROFESSOR JOLY: This morning I was at a loss to know what I should speak about this evening. I decided to take refuge in the reputation of my university, which is known as the silent sister. But I found that I was expected to talk just as long and just as noisily as my colleagues, and therefore I realized that I would have to find some subject to talk about. While in this state of doubt I had a conversation with a gentleman in this university, in which he said that there could never again be discord between England and America. The words sank into my mind. It struck me that I would say a word on that as

my text, and I would ask you to consider the doctrine contained in that statement to be a most dangerous one. I do not want to create an alarming impression of impending discord between the countries. There have been great questions in the past, and those questions have been dissolved. While at the present time perfect friendship exists between the two great branches of the Anglo-Saxon race, no one can say what may be in store for the future; some petty, trivial thing may upset us all.

I remember, when I was a boy, reading a story about a Spanish cavalier who was one of the old adventurers of the fifteenth or sixteenth century. He had heard a legend that there was a fountain of perpetual youth existing somewhere in the southern seas. So Ponce de Leon—for that was his name—set sail in a little ship in search for the fountain of youth. And the story goes that he weathered storms and famine, and that island after island was visited and the waters were tasted by Ponce de Leon, but he didn't find himself getting any younger. As years went on he found himself getting old, and at last his companions saw that he was dying, and they brought him to an island where the legend says no bird had ever sung because there was no water on the island, and there they left him and sailed away.

I think that our quest here may be just as futile as the search for the fountain of perpetual youth if we imagine that the friendship between these two countries is going to be perpetual, unless we resort to that fountain of youth which exists in the race. It is to the youth of the race we must look to keep this friendship alive. How can you appeal to the youth of the race? Only by appealing to them year by year, to see the same sights you see and to feel the same feelings you feel. That is why we are here. It is a great idea and a noble one, and I confess that I sometimes feel almost overwhelmed by its solemnity. How can we do it? Well, we had a long and interesting discussion today, but I confess that I came away from that discussion with some anxiety lest we should become too academic and too divorced from human feelings and human sentiment.

Some of us believed that the plans we were advocating should be put into operation by memorial fellowships, to the memory of those who have been killed or have died in the discharge of their duty. Objections were made, and it was suggested that it was better to get money from the state. But I still believe that it would be better that this money should be raised by means of fellowships in memory of those who died to save the world. I would rather see this matter carried through

by memorial fellowships, given by men of substance or out of the mites of the poor. It is right and fitting, it seems to me, that in this way our plan should be put into effect, whereby the principle we are fighting for should be carried on through the perpetual streams of youth.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: If we have learned our politics from Ireland, we have learned a great deal of our philosophy and religion from Scotland, and I take great pleasure, therefore, in calling upon Sir Henry Jones, professor of philosophy of the University of Glasgow.

SIR HENRY JONES: I am very much like Miss Spurgeon in many ways, but in nothing more so than in the fact that I rise to speak with a great deal of trepidation. But in spite of that fact I have something to say to you which I think you will all be pleased to hear. I know that you will now like to hear what the ladies, of whom there are so many here this evening, so often like to give—the last word: good-night. I claim that I have made the most popular speech of the evening.

VICE-PRESIDENT ANGELL: We are asked to bring the exercises of the evening to a close by singing one stanza each of the British and of the American national anthems. Before we do so I want to express our thanks to our guests for the pleasure they have given us, and to wish them Godspeed on their journey, with the hope that at some future day they may return again to this place.

And so the meeting concluded with the singing of the first stanzas of "God Save the King" and "The Star-Spangled Banner."

THE FRENCH EDUCATIONAL MISSION

Under the patronage of the French government and with the encouragement of the government of the United States, a Mission made up of some of the leading scholars of France arrived in the United States in November. This Mission came in response to invitations from several American institutions of learning to have representative French scholars interpret to them the dominant elements of the culture of France as a means of binding France and America more closely together in intellectual sympathy.

The members of the Mission were as follows: Professor Theodore Reinach, Lieutenant Colonel in the French Army, editor of the *Gazette des Beaux Arts*, contributor of several important studies to the *History of Greece*, and a member of the "Institut de France, Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres"; Professor Emmanuel de Martonne, of the University of Paris, exchange professor at Columbia, 1916, one of the most widely known French geographers; Professor Fernand Baldensperger, of the University of Paris, more recently of Columbia University, who has already lectured at the University of Chicago on comparative literature; Professor Louis Cazamian, professor of English Literature in the University of Paris, the author of a notable volume on the social aspects of English fiction of the nineteenth century; Dr. Etienne Burnet, of the Pasteur Institute (Paris), surgeon in the French Army; Mr. Charles Koechlin, composer and musical critic; Mr. Seymour de Ricci, art critic and former editor of *Art in Europe*.

At the University of Chicago, Friday, November 29, the members of the Mission were entertained at luncheon at the President's house and in other homes. In the afternoon lectures were given as follows: "The France of Today and Tomorrow," Lieutenant Louis Cazamian. Harper Assembly Room, 4:30 P.M. "Experiences of a French Surgeon on Different Fronts," Dr. Etienne Burnet. Ricketts Laboratory, 4:30 P.M. In the evening Lieutenant Colonel Reinach delivered an illustrated lecture on "Martyr Monuments of France" in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall. On Tuesday, December 3, at three o'clock, Mr. Charles Koechlin lectured on "Modern French Music." The program of the Chicago Symphony Orchestra, at four o'clock, in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, was made up of modern French compositions.

THE VICE-PRESIDENT'S QUARTERLY STATEMENT

The work of the Autumn Quarter has been marked by the inauguration of the Student Army Training Corps and its subsequent demobilization. Applications to the number of nearly 2,000 for entrance to the Corps were received, but by reason of the delay in execution of the induction papers by the local boards, by reason of the general public belief that peace was near at hand, and finally by reason of the widespread epidemic of influenza, the actual number of men in the two sections of the Corps totaled approximately 1,300. A full report of the experiences of the quarter will be prepared in due time.

It is only just to comment here upon the unswerving loyalty with which every officer of the University attempted to carry out the program of the War Department in assisting in the training of men for the Army and Navy. It would be a pleasure to mention by name those to whose untiring fidelity we are particularly indebted for the establishment of the new conditions, but the list is too long. If the University had gained nothing else from the experience, it might still count as a great and permanent asset the evidence which has been given of the complete devotion of the members of its staff to the interests of the country and of the institution.

The total attendance of students for the quarter has been 3,192, against 3,368 for the Autumn Quarter of 1917, a loss of 176. Thanks to the S.A.T.C., the attendance in the Colleges shows an increase over last year of 120. The loss has been in the Graduate and Professional schools. It chances that we confer at the end of this quarter exactly the same number of degrees as at the Autumn Convocation a year ago, although the distribution among the several divisions of the University naturally varies a trifle.

A number of interesting gifts have been made to the University during the past quarter. Attention is directed to the following:

The Eugene Field collection, consisting of rare editions of his works, original letters, and manuscripts, presented by Dr. Frank W. Gunsaulus. The gift is of special interest because of the high position already attained by the University Libraries in American literature due to the generosity of Mrs. Francis Neilson.

A manuscript volume of great interest for the early history of Kentucky, presented by Dr. William Allen Pusey, of Chicago, a valuable addition to the previous rich collection of manuscripts on Kentucky already in the possession of the University.

Very important additions have been made by Mrs. Emma B. Hodge to her previous gifts of books and original manuscripts of the Reformation period.

Mr. Andrew MacLeish, vice-president of the Board of Trustees, has presented to the University $100,000 for the erection of a building, with an expression of preference for an administration building. This is but one of a long list of benefactions for which the University is indebted to Mr. MacLeish, whose frequent generosity has marked its previous history, and whose untiring and devoted service on the Board of Trustees has been for years of inestimable value.

The last news from President Judson reported him as in good health and starting back on December 2 from Northern Persia by way of Constantinople and Paris. The date of his arrival here is still uncertain. Such messages as have come through indicate that the trip has been both interesting and successful.

Throughout the period of the war the University has strained every nerve to render the largest possible service to the common cause. More than a hundred members of its Faculty and hundreds upon hundreds of its students and alumni have entered the national service. All have regarded it as a matchless privilege to give each to the limit of his powers. Now that peace has been restored the University will welcome back her sons and daughters, and take up once again the more familiar round of her usual academic duties; but she is keenly alive to the fact that the old world which she formerly served has gone forever—that new problems and new obligations now confront her. To these she sets her hand, resolute as in the past to give the best she has of intelligence, insight, and devotion. And with this purpose in mind she will open her doors to the new year, which promises to usher in a new world.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

By J. SPENCER DICKERSON, *Secretary*

GIFT OF ANDREW MacLEISH

Mr. Andrew MacLeish has served as a Trustee of the University since 1890, having been one of the original Trustees selected by the American Baptist Education Society.

At the meeting of the Board of Trustees held October 8, 1918, the following communication was received from Mr. MacLeish:

The Board of Trustees
The University of Chicago

GENTLEMEN: Appreciating as I do the pressing and increasing need of the University in the way of additional buildings, I take pleasure in turning over to the University for the purpose of helping to meet the need for a building (preferably for "*administration*" or "modern languages") the securities described in the list inclosed herewith, and therein closely approximating in value at the time of my gift $100,000.

It is my desire that the Board of Trustees shall have full discretion as to the time when the proceeds and accumulations from these securities shall be applied to the purpose mentioned.

Respectfully yours,
ANDREW MacLEISH

September 27, 1918

The gift was gratefully accepted by the Trustees and at their request the Secretary acknowledged Mr. MacLeish's liberality in the following letter:

Mr. Andrew MacLeish
Carson, Pirie, Scott & Company
Chicago

DEAR MR. MACLEISH: I am instructed by the Board of Trustees of the University to express to you on behalf of your fellow Trustees their thanks for your munificent gift received by them at the meeting held October 8, 1918. The duty imposed upon me is a most pleasant one—alike because you are the giver and because of the amount and object of the gift.

Your gift is peculiarly significant by reason of your official connection with the University from the very beginning; indeed you were one of that group of farseeing men who participated in the counsels which led to the founding of the institution. Furthermore, you have been intimately connected with the administration of the University's business affairs, having been on the first appointed committees on buildings and grounds and that on finance. The building you first name as that to be built by your financial aid is that to house the University's administrative officers.

It is an occasion for justifiable pride that so many gifts to the University have come from its Trustees, men who best have known its ideals, its needs, its possibilities for good. You have once more added your name to this list of generous givers to wisely chosen objects.

On behalf of the Board of Trustees,

Very truly yours,

J. SPENCER DICKERSON, *Secretary*

October 14, 1918

THE LA VERNE NOYES FOUNDATION

Upon recommendation of Vice-President Angell the Board of Trustees has adopted the following plan for the administration of the scholarships of the La Verne Noyes Foundation:

According to the terms of the gift establishing the La Verne Noyes Foundation, the amount and character of evidence of qualification of applicants and selection from the applicants is left to the discretion and decision of the Board of Trustees of the University.

The following plan for the administration of the scholarships provided by the La Verne Noyes Foundation is suggested to the Board of Trustees:

1. Each applicant will fill out a form, on page 1 of which are printed the terms applying to the scholarships. The questionnaire (on pages 2, 3, and 4) has been drawn so as to elicit the facts regarding eligibility and additional facts bearing upon qualifications.

2. These applications will be reviewed by a committee appointed by the President of the University. In the case of students already in residence, each application will be submitted to the dean before consideration by the committee. Until the working of the scheme has been sufficiently tested, the applications will be received and considered in the President's office.

3. The University Auditor has submitted the following proposal regarding a form of appointment:

Appointments will be made in duplicate, the original to go to the appointee, and the duplicate to be kept in a bound book of 50 or 100 to the book. The appointment blank will indicate the name of the appointee, the cash value of the tuition which the appointment covers, and the quarter. A separate voucher will be issued for each quarter. The appointee will be instructed to present the voucher in lieu of cash for the payment of his tuition to the Cashier, from whose office it will come to the Auditor's office, where the amount will be charged against the La Verne Noyes Foundation.

Applications for scholarships to the number of 350 have been received. For the Winter Quarter 160 scholarships have been awarded.

APPOINTMENTS

In addition to reappointments the following appointments have been made:

Herbert Bell to an instructorship in the Department of Physics, from October 1, 1918.

Assistant Professor Wellington D. Jones as a dean in the College of Science, from October 1, 1918.

William Raymond Meeker to an associateship in the Department of Anatomy, from October 1, 1918.

Daniel L. Hoffer to an instructorship in Physical Education, School of Education, from October 1, 1918.

Marie Dye as teacher of chemistry in the High School, School of Education, from October 1, 1918.

Lydia Jane Roberts to an instructorship in home economics, School of Education, from October 1, 1918.

Evelyn G. Halliday to an instructorship in home economics, School of Education, from January 1, 1919.

George L. Harris as Acting Principal of the High School, School of Education, from October 1, 1918.

Kenneth B. Hunter to an instructorship in English in the High School, School of Education, from October 1, 1918.

Laurens J. Mills to an instructorship in English in the High School, School of Education, from October 1, 1918.

Helen B. Dickey to an instructorship in home economics, School of Education from October 1, 1918.

Marion G. Dana to an instructorship in home economics, School of Education, from October 1, 1918.

Mildred Henderson to an instructorship in home economics, School of Education, from October 1, 1918.

Faith M. McAuley to an instructorship in home economics, School of Education, from October 1, 1918.

Cora A. Anthony to an associateship in home economics, School of Education, from October 1, 1918.

Harvey B. Lemon to an assistant professorship in the Department of Physics, from January 1, 1919.

Mrs. Katherine A. Graham to an instructorship in the Department of English, from October 1, 1918.

LEAVES OF ABSENCE

In addition to renewing leaves of absence already granted to members of the Faculties, chiefly for service in connection directly or indirectly with the war, the following leaves of absence have been granted:

To Assistant Professor Charles C. Colby, of the Department of Geography, for the Autumn Quarter, 1918, the Winter and Spring Quarters, 1919. He visits Japan for the United States Shipping Board.

To Professor H. Gideon Wells, of the Department of Pathology, from November 1, 1918, to May 1, 1919. He visits Roumania and the Balkan States as medical officer of a Red Cross Relief Commission.

To Professor George H. Mead, of the Department of Philosophy, from October 25, 1918, to January 1, 1919, to serve as director of war courses in the Student Army Training Corps for Missouri, Kansas, and Colorado.

To Professor James H. Tufts, of the Department of Philosophy, from October 25, 1918, to January 1, 1919, to serve as director of war courses in the Student Army Training Corps for Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan.

To Assistant Professor William D. MacMillan, of the Department of Astronomy, from October 1, 1918, for the duration of the war. He is a major in the Ordnance Department of the Army.

To Principal Franklin W. Johnson, of the University High School, for one year from October 1, 1918. He is serving at a United States Army base hospital in New Jersey, with rank of major.

To Associate Professor Harold O. Rugg, of the Department of Education, School of Education, for the Autumn Quarter, 1918. He is serving in the Army.

To Dean James Parker Hall, of the Law School, for service in the Adjutant General's Office, of the War Department, from October 1, 1918, for the duration of the war.

To Instructor Richard Offner, of the Department of History of Art, from September 1, 1918, to January 1, 1919.

RESIGNATIONS

The Board of Trustees has accepted the resignations of the following members of the Faculties:

John M. Crowe, teacher of English in the University High School, School of Education, to take effect October 1, 1918.

Associate George F. Sutherland, of the Department of Physiology, to take effect October 1, 1918.

Major Henry S. Wygant, Professor of Military Science and Tactics, to take effect October 20, 1918.

Assistant Professor Eugene A. Stephenson, of the Department of Geography, to take effect November 4, 1918.

Instructor James Kessler, of the Department of Romance Languages, to take effect October 1, 1918. He has entered the Army.

Beth Lemen, teacher in the University High School, of the School of Education, to take effect October 1, 1918.

Assistant Professor Shiro Tashiro, of the Department of Physiological Chemistry, to take effect December 31, 1918. He takes a position with the University of Cincinnati.

STUDENT ARMY TRAINING CORPS

At the meeting of the Board of Trustees held November 12, 1918, portions of a report made by Major H. S. Wygant, the first commandant of the Student Army Training Corps, to the War Department's Committee on Education and Special Training were read.

This report contained the following:

> I desire to report upon the wonderful co-operation accorded the Military Department by the University of Chicago authorities, from the head of the University, Dr. James R. Angell, to the last subordinate. The needs of the military department appear to have in most instances been anticipated, and every facility, regardless of the sacrifice it meant to the institution, in old established custom, expense, etc., was offered the Commanding Officer to effect and satisfactorily carry out the plans and wishes of the War Department. I cannot too highly commend this institution for its spirit of patriotism, sacrifice, and hearty and cordial co-operation with the military authorities.

Major Wygant was succeeded as commandant by Major Ripley L. Dana, who remained until the Corps was mustered out in December.

MISCELLANEOUS

F. H. Tracht, for a number of years connected with the retail department of the University of Chicago Press, has been appointed manager of the University bookstores under the general supervision of a subcommittee of the Trustees' Committee on Press and Extension.

Mr. and Mrs. J. L. Rosenberger have added $1,000 to the principal of the endowment of the Rosenberger medal and prize. The death of Mrs. Rosenberger on November 19, 1918, was reported to the Trustees at the meeting held December 10, 1918, and a letter of sympathy on their behalf was sent to Mr. Rosenberger.

The Board of Trustees has formally voted to extend the leave of absence granted to President Judson for service abroad as chairman of a relief commission sent to Persia. It was the hope of the Trustees that he would remain in Paris so long as he deemed it desirable, especially in view of the early meeting of the Peace Conference at Versailles. President Judson was in Bombay in October; later he proceeded to Teheran, Persia, where he remained for some weeks. On December 10

he left Baku on the Caspian Sea, crossing Trans-Caucasia, for Batum, on the Black Sea. He expected to sail thence for Constantinople. He arrived in Rome on December 30, 1918, immediately departing for Paris. In a letter to the President of the Board dated at Bombay, September 26, 1918, he wrote saying that "the work of the commission is proceeding well and I am rejoiced that I came. Results look promising." The latest cablegram from Paris announces that he will return to Chicago early in February.

The University has invested $524,550 in Liberty Loan bonds of the first, second, and third issues. To the fourth Liberty Loan a subscription of $125,000 was made.

A lease has been closed with the Bryant & Stratton Business College for space for use of University College in the Lake View Building at 116 South Michigan Avenue.

Upon the request of the American Council of Education, the Board of Trustees has voted to receive in the University one or more students who have served in the French Army and to grant them free tuition. They are mature men prepared for advanced work of graduate or technical character. The first of these men enters the Law School in the Winter Quarter of 1919. Twenty-one such soldier-students have already been received by American universities.

LETTERS FROM PERSIA

From Harry Pratt Judson, Chairman of the Commission on Relief in the Near East:

. . . . The commission has been showered with attentions . . . .

From Arthur C. Boyce, the American Mission, formerly a student in the Department of Education of the University of Chicago:

It has been a great treat for us here to be associated with Dr. Judson in this work, and we are hoping that his visit may mean much good for the future of Persia. I do not believe that any foreigner has been so royally received in Persia since the days of Shah Abbas and the early English ambassadors to the Persian court. The name of America is magic these days, and the people are expecting much from us in the future. The coming of this Commission has made the government and people feel that America has a special interest in the welfare of Persia, and, as one Persian gentleman expressed it at a meeting of our Relief Committee the other day, "that there is still upon the earth a people who will work for other and weaker nations sincerely and unselfishly." Dr. Judson will tell you no doubt about the way they have been received and honored and decorated[1] by Shah and people, how they have been dinnered and teaed by every part of the community from Armenian Council to Zoroastrian Assembly. Professor Jackson's scholarship in things Persian and deep sympathy for the Persian people, together with Dr. Judson's fine diplomacy and keen appreciation of the difficulties under which the government is working, have greatly enhanced the name of America, and gives us who stay behind a great deal to live up to.

[1] The Order of the Lion and the Sun (of the first class with brilliants), the highest honor in the gift of Persia, was conferred on President Judson.

IDA NOYES, THE COLLEGE STUDENT

IDA NOYES

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

Ida Noyes Hall of the University of Chicago is a memorial building. It was erected by Mr. La Verne Noyes, of Chicago, in memory of his wife, Ida E. S. Noyes. The name thus commemorated is familiar to all the women of the University, and successive graduating classes will carry it to new communities and new countries until it is known in every land. As students and visitors realize the beauty and charm of the Hall, view its proportions, and consider its usefulness, they are likely to ask, "Who was Ida Noyes and was she worthy of the monument affection has built to her memory and of the mention that will be made of her through so many generations and in so many lands?"

She was born in the village of Croton, Delaware County, New York. Delaware, so named because within it are found the sources of the Delaware River, is in the second tier of counties west of the Hudson and the first north of the Pennsylvania border. At the close of the Revolution it was an almost unbroken wilderness. It was, however, rich in pine forests and in waterways to float lumber and logs to market. Well-authenticated stories are on record of white pine trees more than two hundred feet in height. The rumor of its attractions spread to New England, and colonies of Massachusetts and Connecticut Revolutionary soldiers and their families began to settle in its forests and on its streams. Among them were the progenitors of Mrs. Noyes. On her mother's side she traced her genealogy through the Wheat, Bolles, and Shephard families to William Bradford, the second governor of the Plymouth colony who came with the Pilgrim Fathers to the New World in 1620. Silas C. Wheat, the genealogist of his family, writes, after carefully tracing the line of descent, "This line makes all descendants of Captain Wm. and Mary Wheat the descendants of Governor Wm. Bradford, of Plymouth Colony." Captain William and Mary Wheat were the great-grandparents of Mrs. Noyes. On the two sides of the family there have been soldiers in all the wars of America, from the French and Indian down through two hundred and fifty years to the Great War, just now ended as this is written, that has saved the liberties of mankind. The father and mother of Mrs. Noyes were Joel W. Smith and Susan M. Wheat. Their families had migrated from New England to the wilderness of Delaware County in the first decade of

the century, the Smiths in 1800. Joel W. Smith was a graduate of Yale. He had eight brothers, and in 1868 the father and his nine sons cast ten votes for General Grant for president. Joel became a physician and was settled for a few years at Croton, near the old home, in Delaware County. This village has found it difficult to get a satisfactory name, and during the last sixty years has been known successively as Croton, East Franklin, and Treadwell. Here, while the village still bore its original name, Mrs. Noyes was born on April 16, 1853, and was named Ida Elizabeth. A sister two years younger died in childhood. She remained the only daughter in a family of five children, one of the brothers being older by two years, the others much younger than herself.

The father, Dr. Smith, was one of that great army of Americans who in the fifties of the last century heard the call of the West. The father of La Verne Noyes yielded to it in 1854, but it was not until three years later that Dr. Smith left the home of his fathers to seek another in the new state of Iowa. Ten years only had passed since the admission of Iowa to the Union, and when in 1857 Dr. Smith settled in Charles City, Floyd County, he found himself in a country of pioneers. Charles City, or St. Charles as it was then known, is in northern Iowa, seventy-five miles west of the Mississippi. Railroads had not yet reached that part of Iowa. It was, in fact, the real frontier. The Indians still lingered in the neighborhood. Bears and wolves were found. Ida was about four years old when the family reached the new home. The older brother, Irving, was six. It was dangerous for the children to wander far afield, and alarm was felt if they were too long out of their mother's sight. Until 1864 there were only two of them, and they were inseparable companions and constant playmates. As they grew older together Ida became accustomed to the sports of a boy. The Cedar River flows through the village and in the family, traditions have come down of big pickerel caught by them. As the country settled they were allowed great freedom, and, with forest and stream inviting them, made much of the out-of-door life. Ida was notable throughout her girlhood for rather striking red cheeks, which she no doubt owed to this life in the open. In the early years the family endured many of the hardships incident to a pioneer life. Doctors were few and far between on those western prairies, and the father was often compelled to answer distant calls in all weathers. Nothing pleased his young daughter more than to ride with him, when weather and distance permitted, on his visits into the country. The father's reputation and

practice constantly increased, until he became known as one of the leading physicians of the state. The railroad came, the village developed into a small but thriving city, and the conditions of life greatly improved. Dr. Smith was one of the most public-spirited of the citizens. He was much interested in the village school from the first and was early made president of the school board. He had been a school teacher in early life, and his interest in and ambition for the schools of his western home were great and fruitful. It was said of him, "None but himself can know and eternity only can reveal the labors, the sacrifices, and the pecuniary cost to himself of the work which he has done for the schools of Charles City and vicinity."

Both the children were exceptionally bright. The brother, Irving, had unusual intellectual gifts and ended his life at forty-four as professor of pathology and therapeutics in Iowa State College. The sister, Ida, was perhaps equally bright, and at eleven years of age was in classes with boys and girls of fourteen and fifteen. Brilliant as her brother was, he kept only two years in advance of her, and he was two years older. When he went to Iowa State College as a student in 1868, at seventeen, it was only natural that the sister who admired him should resolve to follow him. This she did in 1870, when she too was seventeen. She was admitted to the State College in this wise: She wrote to the president a letter so well considered and in penmanship so clear and beautiful that he told her to come, and as some form of service was at that time required from all students he appointed her his private secretary. After her brother's graduation she spent a term at the State University of Iowa City, but soon returned and completed her college course in the institution at Ames, where she was graduated with honors in 1874. A fellow-student says of her: "During her college days she was admired for her talent as a presiding officer, as a fine speaker, and as one greatly talented in reading and acting." She was a brilliant student, learning with unusual facility, so that study was never a drudgery but always a delight. It was indeed so much of a delight that she continued to be a student to the end of her life. Her work in the classroom is reported to have been well-nigh perfect, and she was a recognized leader in college activities. It was in the college at Ames that she and Mr. Noyes first met. He was a Junior when she entered, and was a classmate of her brother. They became acquainted, and he found the bright, vivacious, auburn-haired girl most attractive. The attraction indeed was mutual and resulted in something more than mere acquaintance.

Returning home after her graduation in 1874 she became a teacher in the Charles City High School. A popular and successful instructor, she continued teaching for two years or more, when her approaching wedding day took her away from her classes. She found much of her recreation during the three years between her graduation and marriage in horseback riding. A friend of the family had brought back from the South at the close of the Civil War in 1865 a young pony, which later came into her possession. Her slight figure matched the pony's small stature, and Daisy, whom she rode thousands of miles, continued for many years to minister to her health and happiness. Daisy accompanied her through all changes of residence, serving her to a very advanced age, and when too old longer to carry her hundred pounds was sent back to Iowa by Mr. Noyes and cared for to the end of her long and useful life. Daisy was believed to have lived fifty-four years, an age so great as to deserve recording.

Ida Smith became Ida Noyes in 1877. The father of La Verne Noyes had brought his family from Genoa, Cayuga County, New York, to Springville, Linn County, Iowa, in 1854, when the boy was five years old. The son had grown up on his father's farm and had entered Iowa State College in 1868, graduating in 1872. He had later established himself in business in Batavia, Illinois. Mr. Noyes possessed in a very unusual degree two qualifications for success in life. He had by nature a genius not only for invention but also for the conduct of business. How many devices he has invented he probably does not himself know, but he has secured patents for more than a hundred. When he began his business life in Batavia it was in the manufacture and sale of his own inventions in improved haying tools and gate hangers. The acquaintance of the two young people in college had developed into mutual affection, and an engagement had followed. As soon, therefore, as Mr. Noyes began to see his way in business they were married. The wedding took place in Charles City on May 24, 1877. Mr. and Mrs. Noyes did not set up housekeeping in Batavia. A gentleman with a large, fine house and a very small family asked them to make their home in his house, so that with slender resources they were rather sumptuously housed during their two years in that attractive village.

It has been said that Mrs. Noyes was a student, and that studious application was not a task but a delight to her. It was impossible for her to be idle. Her small body was a dynamo of ceaseless activity. Newly married, in a new community where she had few social ties and no household duties, she applied herself to reading and study. Web-

ster's *Unabridged Dictionary* was kept at hand for ready reference. She found it heavy and hard to handle. She therefore suggested to Mr. Noyes that he, being an inventor, should devise something to hold it for her so that she would only have to turn the leaves. On her consenting to take over his correspondence and accounting, which she was perfectly qualified to do by her experience in college as secretary to the president, Mr. Noyes in the course of a few weeks invented the dictionary holder, which proved to be a stroke of genius and laid the foundation of their fortune. The new business so increased his labors that Mrs. Noyes continued for a number of years to keep the accounts and conduct the correspondence, and she proved a very able business associate through these early years. The success of the new business led them to Chicago in 1879, and that city was thenceforth their home. The correspondence and accounting were now given up for housekeeping, and they made their home at first on the West Side, later on the South Side, finally locating permanently in the North Division. In Chicago Mrs. Noyes found opportunities for the art studies which she had long desired. She lost no time therefore in making her way to the Art Institute and enrolling as a student. Her impulse toward art had appeared in her girlhood. She began her studies in drawing in Charles City and continued them in Batavia, making there also a beginning in painting. She cherished an ambition to become an artist and was encouraged in it by her husband. On coming to Chicago, therefore, she welcomed the opportunity which the then newly organized Art Institute afforded her for continuing her studies under competent teachers. She and her husband conceived a life-long interest in the Institute, of which Mr. Noyes became a governing life-member. It goes without saying that Mrs. Noyes never intended to become a professional painter. But she earnestly desired to attain a degree of excellence that would help to enrich her life and add to its satisfactions. She had well-defined ambitions. This was one of them. Another was to see as much of the planet on which she lived as other occupations and duties would permit. She was ambitious to improve her mind, to widen her horizon, to add to her information. She was mentally alert. She read much. But books only served to awaken and increase a desire to see the people and things of which she read. These longings largely shaped her life.

Mr. Noyes prospered in business, and this opened the way for her to realize her longing to continue her studies in painting in the Mecca of all students of art. It was in 1886, nine years after her marriage,

that she made her first trip abroad. She left Chicago in November, 1886, and did not return till the end of June, 1888. She wrote during this absence, as she did in all her absences from home, a series of most interesting letters to her husband, which have been carefully preserved. Her penmanship was perfect, and she wrote with great care. She did not sit down and write as things occurred to her at the moment but thought out and arranged in advance the contents of her letters and then wrote in a natural, simple, and charming style. A reader of her letters finds no difficulty in believing what she says in one of them that rhetoric and Kames's *Elements of Criticism* were the most enjoyable studies of her college course. She began to write on the steamer, and her letters gave a detailed story of every day, from that on which she sailed to her arrival in port on her return. She did this on all her journeys (and these were not infrequent) to give pleasure to her husband. She wrote twice and sometimes three times a week, and Mr. Noyes wrote just as often. On this first voyage abroad, after spending a month in Heidelberg with a friend, she went to Paris, passing through Coblenz, which she was assured was "impregnably fortified." Most of the nineteen months of her stay abroad at this time she spent in Paris studying French, drawing, and painting. She spent much time in the famous Julien School but tried out the methods of others also.

In March, 1888, she writes of her daily routine as follows:

> In the morning I rise soon after daylight, which is not too early at this season, make my toilet, take the coffee and rolls, and get to work at the art school at half-past eight. Dejeuner occupies the noon hour, after which comes painting again till four or five o'clock. The time between this and getting ready for dinner is usually occupied with a walk for fresh air and exercise and doing little errands or making calls. You know all about the length of the dinner hour [Mr. Noyes had run over and visited her] and how easy it is to sit down afterward and talk with friends and acquaintances, or go somewhere in the evening. Still my evenings are not all spent this way, as you know I write an occasional letter, go to dancing school one evening each week, and up to this time have prepared French exercises for a class which I attended two afternoons each week.

While I am quoting from this interesting series of letters I cannot resist the temptation to use the following passage, so full of significance and interest at the time this sketch is written at the end of the Great War which restored to France her lost provinces:

> One incident of the national fête day which I witnessed deserved to be recorded. It was early morning and I was standing in the Place de la Concorde quite enraptured with the fairy-like appearance given to it by garlands of white globes, which, like festoons of flowers, were carried in all directions from lamp-post to lamp-post, where the ordinary burners and lanterns were replaced by an immense cluster of globes

like a great spray of white flowers. Suddenly a solemn procession appeared at the northwest corner of the Place, marched slowly across the Place, and paused in front of the statue which symbolized the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. From the gravity of the procession, which consisted of men and youths, as well as the dirgelike music to which their steps were timed, I had at first supposed it must be a funeral, and had wondered that any French person, even in death, could be so inconsiderate of the feelings of others, or perhaps it were better to say, of the eternal fitness of things, as to intrude obsequies upon that festal day. But I was mistaken. There was no hearse, although the other symbols of grief, sad music, the mournful visage, the step which showed the heart bowed down, and the wreaths of immortelles were all there. The latter they had come to lay at the shrine of their loved and lost provinces. What could be more patriotic or more fitting the nation's day? And they tell me the people all say this shrine shall never be without flowers until their own is restored to them again.

This letter was written July 24, 1887. Mr. Noyes was about to join her and had asked her to continue her letters as usual up to the day of his arrival. He came on July 25, and they spent a month together in Paris, in Switzerland, on the Rhine, in Belgium, and in England; then Mr. Noyes returned to his business in Chicago and she to her studies in Paris. A few months later he wrote to her:

Many people have said to me that they did not see how we could stand it to be separated so long. I assure such people that it would be much pleasanter for us to be together, but that happiness in life for us is made up of many elements; that we can each read, write, think, and do many things that give enjoyment in the absence of the other; and that even when alone and thousands of miles apart we find life well worth the living, and that we hope by being separated for a time to make it better worth the living.

Both were young in 1887; Mrs. Noyes was only thirty-four. Though a college woman, she was eager for a broader culture, and her husband sympathized with her ambitions. Her desire for improvement and excellence appears in this extract from a letter of October, 1887. "When one looks at the lovely Venus de Milo chiseled by human hands before the time of Christ and contemplates how its beauty has endured, is it not a wonderful incentive to do well that which we do?" In April and May of 1888 she made a trip through Italy, visiting Rome, Naples, Venice, Milan, and Florence, returning to Chicago at the end of June. Continuing her studies, she added a knowledge of Spanish to her acquaintance with French.

The year of her return from this first trip to Europe was one of the most interesting and important in the family life. It was the year in which Mr. Noyes organized the Aermotor Company for the manufacture and sale of steel windmills, which were so vast an improvement on the

old wooden styles that they revolutionized that business and led him on to a career of uninterrupted prosperity. Mrs. Noyes was thereafter at liberty to spend her leisure as she wished. The thing that distinguished her from other women was the use she made of the opportunities which increasing wealth opened before her. She might have spent her summers at fashionable watering places or devoted her leisure to the distractions of the capitals of Europe. But these methods of employing her time do not seem to have occurred to her. It was her ambition for self-improvement, for acquiring new information, for increasing her knowledge of the world she lived in that controlled her. She felt that she had no time to waste in those places where the wealthy and fashionable gathered for recreation and amusement. Whether at home or abroad she was ceaselessly busy. It was her artistic instinct that made her a devotee of the camera. Always and everywhere she was taking pictures. She was fond of travel, and though she was never again absent from her home for as long a period as on her first sojourn in Paris, in pursuance of her ambitions she traveled much and far. And she journeyed in this fashion: Her camera was in constant use, ten, twenty, thirty times a day. Every point of historic or artistic interest was visited and studied and photographed. Notes were taken on the spot and at night written out more fully in a diary. Every expenditure, even the slightest, was set down in an account book, on the theory that what cost money was worth remembering, and that an expenditure account is a real and illuminating history of a journey. No days were wasted in idleness. The photographs were carefully catalogued, named, and numbered, and the films developed at the studio of the nearest expert. Then the frequent home letters and letters to other friends were faithfully written. There was much preparatory reading to be done of the places to be visited during the succeeding week, as well as routes of travel to be studied and passage to be secured.

In reading the records of these journeys one is overwhelmed by the impression of the almost superhuman activity in sightseeing, photographing, souvenir buying, elaborate accounting, diary writing, letter writing, and other things which are not occasional but continue daily for weeks and months together. Yet there does not seem to be haste, only an ordered but ceaseless activity. She worked untiringly, but with a singular ease and enjoyment. Constant activity was not an effort but the law of her being. Her frequent journeys were made in the company of her husband or of some kindred-minded woman friend. She was not critical of people, but sympathetic and companionable,

and made many warm and valued friends in the course of her travels. At the same time she had so keen an intelligence, so much independence and self-reliance, such an air of competence, that she never suffered from imposition in any part of the world.

It is not intended to tell with any detail the story of Mrs. Noyes's journeys, nor even to mention all of them. The limits of this sketch forbid. The three daily diaries she kept on her trip around the world, telling the story of where she went and what she saw each day, of the photographs she took and the money she spent, these alone contain about ten thousand words, more than are here given to the story of her entire life.

In the spring of 1892 she visited the Pacific Coast, and after seeing Oregon, Washington, and southern California extended her journey to Hawaii, spending on her return a few days in the Yosemite Valley. In February, 1894, she went abroad, visiting France, Belgium, and England. Mr. Noyes joined her in the spring for the later weeks of travel. The following winter and spring she spent three months in a trip which carried her to Portugal, Spain, Italy, Greece, Egypt, Palestine, Turkey, France, and England. In the summer of 1895 she and her husband went down the St. Lawrence and up the Saguenay, visited Montreal and Quebec, and gave two days to Bar Harbor and two more to Lake George and Lake Champlain. Before returning home Mrs. Noyes visited her birthplace in Delaware County and was taken by Mr. Noyes to see the house in which he was born in Cayuga County.

In the summer of 1897 Mr. and Mrs. Noyes took a trip together through the West and Northwest of their own country. After ascending Pike's Peak and viewing the Garden of the Gods they crossed the continental divide amid scenery of which Mrs. Noyes wrote: "The views of castle-like rock formation all along the Grand River and near the Green River were so startlingly like the elaborate architectural work of man it was hard to believe it all Nature's unstudied handiwork. Sometimes the formations looked in the distance exactly like great fortified cities." They visited Great Salt Lake, where "La Verne tried the buoyant billows of the salty sea, but I did not," and took the trip down the Columbia River. But all this was only preliminary to their real objective, which was Alaska. The rush to the Klondyke was on, and their steamer was full of men on their way to the gold fields. They climbed the Muir Glacier and found themselves, as Mrs. Noyes wrote, in the "awe-inspiring presence of the majesty of congealed centuries." They went as far north as Skagway. There were so many scenes to be

photographed that her supply of films became exhausted and could not be replenished till Tacoma was reached on the return journey. A great week followed in Yellowstone Park, and the beginning of September found them again at home.

The combination of the beautiful, sublime, and marvelous that this journey had presented made such an impression on Mrs. Noyes that in closing her diary she quoted these lines:

> There are those who seek in other climes the joys they might have known
> Mid the mountains and the meadows of the land they call their own.

The impression, however, was not abiding, though she loved and admired the "mountains and meadows" of no land above those of her own. But Greece and Palestine and Egypt had awakened in her a desire to see the Far East. On December 2, 1897, accompanied by an old Chicago friend then living in London, she spent six busy and happy months circling the globe. She followed a unique method in preparing for this journey. In 1895 a book had been published in Chicago, written by Sarah A. Pope, with the following title: *East, West—Home's Best. Aunt Sarah Here, Aunt Sarah There.* The author told the story of just such a tour around the world as Mrs. Noyes desired to make. She took this book, therefore, and wrote out a fifteen-hundred-word transcript of it. This was written in narrative form and reads like a diary of a trip taken by herself. It contained all the facts as to trains, boats, hotels, places worth seeing, etc., which she thought might be useful to her, and this transcript she took with her, apparently that she might have at hand the information she wanted for frequent reference. In the journey Bombay was reached on January 9, 1898, and six weeks were given to India. Mrs. Noyes found the people of India "fascinating." A few days were spent in Burmah, Ceylon was visited, and a few weeks were given to China. It took five or six weeks to see Japan, which was enjoyed as much as India had been. The Spanish-American War was threatening, and Mr. Noyes warned her that the sea might be so unsafe that it would be necessary for her to walk home. But it did not prove to be so and the S.S. "China" took the travelers safely to San Francisco in May, 1898. During the entire trip Mrs. Noyes had been extraordinarily busy. She had been indefatigable in visiting places of interest. She had taken about two thousand photographs. She had purchased innumerable souvenirs, most of them of artistic interest and value. She found Mr. Noyes awaiting her on the dock in San Francisco, and together they visited southern California and the Grand Canyon of the Colorado. They reached Chicago early

in June, a little more than six months after the voyage around the world began.

Only nine days later Mrs. Noyes went to Denver, Colorado, to attend a convention of the Federation of Women's Clubs. From this short trip of less than three weeks she brought back two hundred photographs. In 1899 she spent some weeks in Ireland, England, and France. In 1900 she made a pilgrimage to Oberammergau, Bavaria, to see and hear the Passion Play. It was the year of the World Exposition in Paris. The aermotor was among the American exhibits, and the youngest brother of Mrs. Noyes was in care of the exhibit. She reached Paris at one o'clock at night and was much pleased to find her brother Frederick at the station to greet her, the city being crowded with visitors. She gave only six days to Paris and the Exposition and then went on to Oberammergau, where she stopped at the house of Emmanuel Lang, brother of Anton, the Christus of the year's play. The house was a "lowly cottage, but entertained fourteen guests, in addition to the five members of the family."

On Sunday, September 30, she wrote in her diary, "The long-looked-for and long-journeyed-for day to see 'the story that transformed the world.' . . . . Had seats 233 and 234 . . . . at just the right distance. Of the play shall not attempt to write, except that it riveted attention from beginning to finish in spite of the long, long hours of sitting still. . . . . Tableaux wonderful, acting astonishing." Leaving Oberammergau, she visited Vienna, Prague, Dresden, and other German cities.

In 1902 President McKinley appointed Mr. Noyes a delegate to the International Congress of Commerce and Industry which met at Ostend, Belgium, in August of that year. Mrs. Noyes accompanied him, and they visited together Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, France, and England. In 1905 they again went abroad together and spent July and August in Ireland, Scotland, England, and Wales. Throughout this journey Mrs. Noyes was very busy with the camera, bringing home about six hundred pictures. In 1907 they visited once more Yellowstone Park, making a more extended stay than on their former visit. Many pictures were brought from a visit in 1909 to the Pacific Coast from Washington to California, which included the Yosemite Valley. "A fascinating sojourn in the heart of the Big Horn Mountains" in Wyoming, which she enjoyed with Mr. Noyes in the summer of 1910, greatly enriched her photographic collection. Mrs. Noyes made her last trip abroad in September, 1910, at the request of a friend who was ill and desired to see her face once more. She took the round trip

on the "Campania" to London and back, contributing on the voyage an appeal in verse for seamen at a concert given on their behalf. This record of her travels is by no means complete. She visited the Panama Canal with Mr. Noyes and the islands of the Caribbean Sea, where many of her finest photographs were taken.

It will be apparent from the foregoing that Mrs. Noyes was very fond of travel. The fact that she was never seasick gave her the liveliest satisfaction. She was proud to be able to write to her husband that in the wildest and most long-continued storms she never missed a meal and was often the only woman who appeared in the dining-room. Everything in her journeys seemed enjoyable; even while her fellow-passengers were miserable she was happy. She possessed great good-will and liked the people she met on trains and shipboard. Amiable and sociable, she made many delightful acquaintances. Everywhere she found friends. She had an unusual capacity for enjoyment and led a happy life. When she went to Hawaii in 1892 Mr. Noyes wrote:

> I was sure your trip would be one of unalloyed pleasure and enjoyment, partly because you always travel rather to enjoy yourself than to be miserable and uncomfortable, and one is likely to find what he hunts for; partly because you are a good traveler and know how to look for and find the good things, and partly because people like to help one enjoy who is a good enjoyer, which you are.

Mrs. Noyes, it has been said by one who knew her, would have been conspicuous in any company by her inconspicuousness. She was petite in figure to an extreme, being about five feet one inch in height, but she made up in animation what she lacked in bulk. Her vivacity was spontaneously temperamental. She was physically and mentally alert and represented the type of woman the old New England academies prided themselves on producing. She carried the spirit of the well-brought-up girl into the sphere that was open to her in Chicago. Playful and serious, she was a decidedly wholesome woman, devoted to those good causes that appealed to her.

She was very much interested in the activities of women. She was a director of the Twentieth Century Club and of the Women's Athletic Club. She was a member of the Chicago Colony of New England Women. She was president of the North Side Art Club and was active in the Woman's Club. But the later years of her life were devoted largely to the Daughters of the American Revolution. The story of her ceaseless activities in the interest of this organization of patriotic women is worthy of a volume. She was secretary and later regent of the Chicago Chapter, the first organized in the country and the largest,

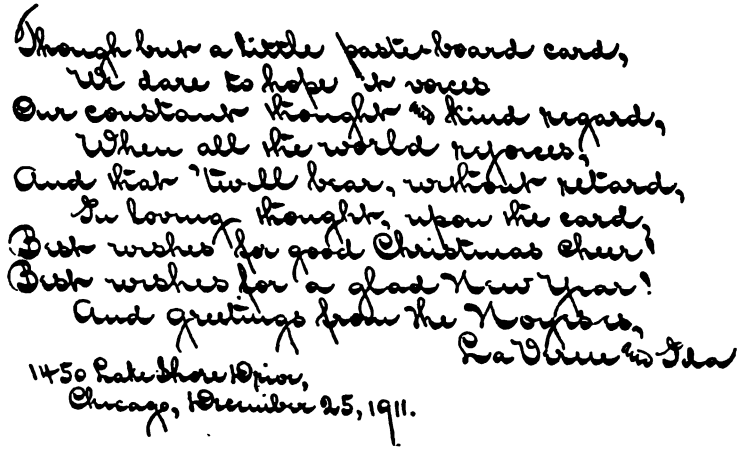
having over eight hundred members. She became vice-president general of the national organization. This honor was conferred on her for the second time during her last illness, when she was not able to be present at the annual meeting. She gave much attention to the Illinois room in the national building of the D.A.R. in Washington, and it was largely furnished by her. She visited the Capitol often in the interest of this great organization and wielded a potent and beneficent influence in its affairs. She often spoke at the annual meetings, and a reporter of a great daily once said of her that she was the "most brilliant woman who had ever appeared before the Congress." She was a graceful speaker, her voice was sweet and musical and carried far, and she had a most winning personality.

She devoted much time and attention to disseminating among foreign immigrants lessons of true Americanism, that they might quickly become good citizens.

She devoted herself to organizing the boys and girls of the country in patriotic clubs and educating them in the duties of citizenship. She was particularly active in the D.A.R. in furthering its multiplied activities. At the request of the national board of that organization she wrote a paper on the forms of activity of the various chapters. To one not acquainted with them their variety and magnitude would be a surprising revelation. She was deeply interested in them all, and no one surpassed her in devotion to them. They included preserving and marking historic sites of buildings, battlefields, forts, roads, and trails, sustaining schools in remote mountain regions and night schools in cities, purchasing and equipping playgrounds in congested city districts, raising funds for patriotic educational work, sustaining lecture courses on American history among our foreign population, and so on, almost without number. Mrs. Noyes gave herself to all these things with the full strength of her enthusiastic nature. A friend who knew her intimately says of her that "wealth made no change in her soul," and that she "never knew a sweeter nature or a stronger one." She was characterized by great kindliness and sympathy and greatly delighted in helping young people to enjoy themselves. Having built an $18,000 cottage for the Park Ridge School for Girls, Mrs. Noyes took much pleasure in providing occasional entertainments for the girls whose home it was and ministering to their welfare and happiness.

Mrs. Noyes's artistic instincts gave her a peculiar joy in beauty. In her journeys the galleries of art, the beautiful in architecture, like the great cathedrals and the Taj Mahal, the picturesque and sublime in

nature, were the things that attracted her and made travel the delight it was. She took pleasure in becoming costumes and filled her house with beautiful things. Her penmanship was itself a work of art, simple, clear, natural, and well-nigh perfect, as the following facsimile will illustrate:


Though but a little pasteboard card,
We dare to hope it voices
Our constant thought and kind regard,
When all the world rejoices;
And that 'twill bear, without retard,
In loving thoughts, upon the card,
Best wishes for good Christmas cheer!
Best wishes for a glad New Year!
And greetings from the Noyes,
La Verne and Ida
1450 Lake Shore Drive,
Chicago, December 25, 1911.

This Christmas card also illustrates how in the latter years of her life Mrs. Noyes developed a facility in writing occasional verse. One of her early attempts was written for her husband for a meeting of the Forty Club in December, 1906, when each member was required to introduce himself in verse. The two verses quoted will serve an evident purpose:

In far-away New England
  Where words and speech are choice,
My earliest ancestors
  Were always known as "Noyce."

But in the "wild and woolly west"
  Among the Forty boys,
To make a pun or turn a jest
  They always call me "Noise!"

It came to be quite the thing for Mrs. Noyes to be called upon to write verses for birthdays, social gatherings, club meetings, and other occasions. After her death these were collected and published in a small volume. Once she wrote for herself during her last illness in 1912, and the result was received with great applause by the D.A.R. Congress

in Washington after her re-election as vice-president general. The seven verses are all good. The following are the first two:

> No matter how elections
> May really terminate,
> My heart will be contented,
> My spirits still elate.
>
> For if we win we're happy.
> And if we lose, we're glad
> To give to someone better
> The honors that we had.

At the eighteenth D.A.R. Congress held in Washington in 1909 she read a response for Illinois in verse to the president general's address of welcome, which awakened great enthusiasm. It is related that when she concluded the French Ambassador left his place and came to congratulate her, and after returning to his seat again left it to repeat his congratulations as the applause continued. The number and variety of the social functions for which her little poems were prepared indicate, in themselves, that she had a very wide circle of friends. They also clearly show that the ties which bound her to her friends were those of real sympathy and affection. Her letters to her husband often brought a company of them together to give an evening to hearing them. She had an unaffected liking for people and was fond of their society. All her instincts were social. Her vivacity was a distinct social asset and gave life and sparkle to every company. It resulted from all this that she was much in society. Her home was the center of an active social life. It was a pleasure to entertain, and she entered with zest into the social life of the city. She was, as this story indicates, often absent from Chicago. She was always ceaselessly active and busy when at home, but she found time nevertheless for meeting her social obligations, and she did this with the same interest and enjoyment that characterized all her multifarious activities.

Mrs. Noyes's interest in art did not cease with her studies in Paris. Not only did she continue to study art, but she continued to paint, producing a large number of pictures, many being studies in heads and faces, and not a few landscapes. Many of these paintings were excellent, some of them very successful. They were evidences of the excellence she might have attained had she devoted herself to art. Her busy life, however, made this impossible. But her camera remained to the end her constant companion in almost daily use. Various

estimates have been made as to the number of photographs she took, varying from thirty thousand to more than a hundred thousand. It is certain that she took many thousands of pictures, and the best of these she arranged with great care in bound volumes which she preserved. Her work with the camera was so perfect that publishers sought the use of her photographs to illustrate their books. In Frederick Royce's *The Burning of St. Pierre and the Eruption of Mont Pelee* may be found extracts from the diary of Mrs. Noyes and a large number of pictures taken by her during a visit she and Mr. Noyes made to the Leeward and Windward Islands in March, 1899.

In 1907 Mr. Noyes purchased a most attractive home at 1450 Lake Shore Drive. Mrs. Noyes found much happiness during the closing years of her life in furnishing and adorning this beautiful home. Into it she brought souvenirs of all the lands she visited. Every room contains something unusual and interesting from far-away lands. Everything fits into its environment as though made for the place it occupies, and all add to the harmony and unity of the design. After living in various parts of the city and during the summers at their country home at Midlothian, in going into the house on the Lake Shore Drive Mr. and Mrs. Noyes were entering their permanent home, where they hoped to have many happy years together. They made it a home of hospitality. They had many friends of whom they were fond, and in entertaining these they found much of their happiness.

Mrs. Noyes had always enjoyed perfect health, and it was a grievous shock to both husband and wife when she was overtaken by serious illness. She made a courageous battle to regain her lost health, but the last year of her life she passed as an invalid. Not, however, a complaining one. She studied to make the atmosphere of her room a cheerful one. For her husband she always had a smile, and this smile was one she had for no one else. On the last day of her life, to the friend who passed that day with her she committed the following beautiful confidence and charge. She said that she had a smile which she called "La Verne's Smile," which was his alone, and which she was very anxious he should not miss when he came in to see her for the last time, and as she feared her sight might fail she charged her friend to give her an agreed sign of his presence that she might not fail to give him his smile. And thus on the fifth of December 1912, at the age of fifty-nine, "passed the strong, heroic soul away."

That Ida Noyes was no ordinary woman is made evident by the extraordinary tributes paid to her at the memorial meeting held in her

honor by the Chicago Chapter of the Daughters of the American Revolution on December 19, 1912.

Telegrams of appreciation were read from many other chapters. The president general, Mrs. Matthew T. Scott, sent a message which said, among other things:

My personal feeling is too deep for utterance. The death of one so cherished, the one I so leaned on for help, for counsel, for support—so strong, so true, so unswerving in friendship—this loss, I believe, means more to me than to any other one person in the world—except the stricken man for whom the light of life has gone out. I am stunned, groping in the dark . . . . for the reason why this bright, beautiful woman, so radiant with glorious vitality, bubbling over with wit and humor, so feminine in charm and personality, so masculine in brain and intellect, should have been taken from those who so loved and leaned upon her. Never again shall we hear from her smiling lips the sparkling, yet stingless raillery and pleasantry that have charmed and convulsed great assemblies; nor noble addresses that are stamped as classics—with their ring of truth and sincerity; matchless in thought and utterance. I am sure I may be pardoned at this pathetic hour for alluding to her marvelous address in the Congress of 1911 in illustration of the intellectual supremacy of this great woman. . . . .

Mrs. George A. Laurence, state regent of Illinois, said:

. . . . who can consider her life as we have known her personally, as she has gone in and out among us, who does not feel a thrill of pride in her accomplishments. And especially as women do we rejoice that we have been so ably represented by one who, though slight and frail in body, was great in intellect and soul. . . . . She was not an ordinary woman. Many a noble woman, possessing all the finer qualities of intellect and heart, fulfilling a splendid life of usefulness, has lived, served, and died within a small circle of friends, who alone knew of her merits. Our friend possessed all these qualities, and yet united with them that finer intellect and personal charm that drew others about her and made her a center of influence that was widespread. . . . . As regent of the Chicago Chapter she attained distinguished success, and her influence in the state conference was a potent one. She was kind, she was thoughtful, she was fair-minded, she did not stoop to the craft and wiles of the politician, but her voice was raised and her influence exerted to lift the standard of our work, and to advance that work along lines that would broaden in their scope as new occasions and directions arose for the exercise of exalted patriotism. . . . . She had a mind that conceived, a heart that resolved, and a hand that executed.

Mrs. Benjamin A. Fessenden, called upon to speak of Mrs. Noyes as a friend, said:

. . . . I say "our friend" because through long years of close intimacy I have never heard her say a cruel or unjust thing of any living soul. . . . . She loved the beautiful in life, and with a generosity that was as boundless as it was modest she sought (out of her abundance) to make those whose lives lay along shadowed paths see the sunshine and by its light find joy and peace. Even as she watched beside

the gate to answer to her name she found comfort in the letters written to her by childish hands and coming direct from childish hearts, letters of love for the friend who was sheltering, feeding, clothing, and educating them for a useful life and a helpful womanhood, letters of prayer that God would spare her to them for long, long years.

She was a woman of distinct mentality and great executive ability. Had she given her life to either literature or art she would have made for herself a place in her day. She had keen wit, versatility, and a delicate sense of humor. . . . . Many of us here today recall her generous interest in and for the schools and colleges among the Tennessee hills and the Carolina mountains and for all children's organizations. She was always and ever the children's friend, and she remembered the widow in her desolation, and her little hands, full of helpfulness, were stretched out in mercy to the downtrodden and oppressed, and she seemed to walk through life with the purpose of helpfulness.

One who had known her since her college life wrote of her:

She had a personality so much out of the ordinary that from childhood until the time of her death she always held a place distinctly her own. All that came into her life ministered to her education and development. . . . . She was superbly democratic. Attainments, position, wealth, only deepened this element in her disposition. . . . . She always had sympathy and kindness for any who, she judged, were unfairly treated. . . . . To clearness and accuracy in thinking is due much of the power she possessed for leadership. . . . . In the early days of her husband's business life . . . . it was from her orderly little desk in their home that the beautifully written letters were sent that were so helpful to his success, and at this desk the books were kept accurately and scientifically. Her wondrously beautiful handwriting has always been a joy to her hosts of friends. . . . . Literature was a field she loved. Books were her delight. She knew them well and loved the best in many kinds.

At the annual meeting of the Congress of the Daughters of the American Revolution held in Washington in the spring following her death Mrs. Fessenden was again called upon to speak of her. From the poem she read in memory of her friend the following lines are taken:

She loved all civic good,
She bent to lift the children of the poor
From out the mire of stagnant want,
The want that drowns their souls,
And wrecks their bodies
Ere they pass the portals
Of life's earliest day.
She loved all truth,
And held her torch aloft,
That those who passed along her way
Might find the road that led
To highest aims and truest happiness.

She was a woman fair and sweet and true,
And now that she has passed
To higher usefulness
She leaves to us who knew
And loved her here
A legacy of inspiration
Toward the highest and the best
That we can give
In deed and word
To this our time.
So in this "in memoriam" hour
We in all truth can say of her,
Her works cannot
Be reckoned up in faltering words,
Her *deeds* shall *live*.
God has recorded them.

Such are the appreciations of those who knew Mrs. Noyes long and well. They leave no room for doubt as to the beautiful and noble qualities she possessed. But it is not these tributes that have convinced the writer of these pages, he having never met Mrs. Noyes, of her exceptional abilities and the loveliness and strength of her character. Two quite other things have persuaded him of the essential truth of all these splendid eulogies.

The first of these is Mrs. Noyes's correspondence with her husband. Many hundreds of her letters have been read with care and with equal interest and delight. They are the letters of a high-minded woman, written with rare intelligence and revealing a personality bent on self-improvement. Not one unworthy sentiment can be found in any of these thousands of pages of intimate personal letters. And they are not selected specimens but comprise all the correspondence with her husband through a period of a quarter of a century. They reveal her democratic spirit, the essential kindness of her heart, her warm appreciation of her fellow-travelers. If at the beginning of a transatlantic voyage she does not find the crowd of strangers about her interesting, before it is over she has found delightful people and made valued friends. The style is never careless and slipshod, yet there is no attempt at fine writing. At the same time it is evident that she wrote her letters with extraordinary care. She usually made a detailed analysis, in advance, of what she wished to say and followed this in the composition. This was in pursuance of her desire for excellence, to do well whatever she did, and to make her letters worthy of her husband's perusal. They are a record of her daily and tireless worth-while activities in study and

observation. They contain little sentiment. There was an evident understanding on this point between husband and wife, and no stranger can know all that was contained in such phrases as the following found in the last lines of all these letters. "I do," or "I do always," or "I do more and more," or "I do more than you do," or "You know I do."

But evidence of the unique, endearing, and noble qualities of Mrs. Noyes, more convincing than her correspondence and the affectionate tributes of her friends, is the extraordinary appreciation of her husband. He knew her better than did any other friend. She was a woman—

> Not perfect, nay, but full of tender wants,
> No angel, but a dearer being.

Her husband trusted in her, was supremely devoted to her, held her and still holds her in an admiration and affection which he does not wish to conceal. Nothing that he could do was ever too good for her. On him, a man of uncommon discernment, what he regarded as the great qualities of her mind and heart made a profound and indelible impression.

It is not surprising therefore that he welcomed the opportunity to commemorate her life and perpetuate her memory in that beautiful building for the women students of the University of Chicago, the Ida Noyes Hall. It was less than six months after the death of Mrs. Noyes when he announced to the Trustees his readiness to erect this hall "as a social center and gymnasium for the women of the University." The proffer was accepted, the plans for the building were made, and the cornerstone was laid on April 17, 1915. Since April 16 was Mrs. Noyes's birthday, her husband chose to regard that ceremony as a celebration of the day. Firmly believing in the future life in which she was conscious and active, he addressed to her a very full letter, saying among other things:

> I am writing a letter to you this morning, to be sealed in the box in the cornerstone of Ida Noyes Hall . . . . as if I knew that you would consciously receive it and get information from it and be pleased with its contents, as I know you would have been before your departure. If it does not come to your conscious mind, it may come to the hands of some living persons a thousand years hence. . . . . I have given in your name, to the University of Chicago, a very beautiful building—Ida Noyes Hall—as a home for the social activities of the young women at the University. It will contain a beautiful gynmasium, natatorium, and many other special, novel, and useful features. It will be an ideal Gothic structure, unsurpassed, probably, by anything in this country for beauty of design, perfection, and durability of architectural construction, and adaptation to the varied activities (social and otherwise) of the women student body.

IDA NOYES, THE ART STUDENT

In accepting this gift, the Board of Trustees of the University declared in formal resolution its "especial gratification that there is to be commemorated in the quadrangles of the University the name of a gracious and gifted woman whose rare qualities are well worthy of admiration and emulation by successive generations of our young women."

> Are souls straight so happy, that, dizzy with heaven,
> They forget earth's affections—?

Mrs. Noyes had visited many countries, and her husband had followed her, with his letters, to them all. Now she was to him only in another country and had not forgotten "earth's affections," and he wrote to her, a little more seriously, indeed, but as naturally as when she had been in Paris. It was the result of the reaction of a healthy mind whose "thoughts and beliefs regarding the next transition have been comforting."

The dedication of the building formed a part of the celebration of the University's twenty-fifth anniversary, in June, 1916. Ida Noyes Hall involved a contribution from Mr. Noyes to the University of half a million dollars, and it has added in an extraordinary degree to the welfare and enjoyment of the students of the University, men and women alike. Indeed the life of the entire University has been enriched. To his contribution Mr. Noyes has added a personal interest that leads him to invite the women of the Senior class each year to a luncheon at his house on the Lake Shore Drive, where they are encouraged to examine the many objects of interest the house contains.

Ida Noyes Hall was not the only memorial built in her honor. Mr. Noyes also gave to the Fourth Presbyterian Church, on the Lake Shore Drive, where they had a pew, the Cloister connecting the manse with the church edifice, in which is placed a tablet bearing, in gold, the following inscription:

> THIS CLOISTER IS ERECTED TO THE GLORY OF GOD
> AND IN LOVING MEMORY OF IDA E. S. NOYES
> 1853–1912
> VICE-PRESIDENT GENERAL OF THE DAUGHTERS OF
> THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

Not quite a year after her death a portrait of Mrs. Noyes was unveiled by the De Witt Clinton Chapter of D.A.R. at Clinton, Illinois. Mrs. Scott, former president general made the address. A few sentences from the tribute she paid her friend may fitly close this sketch.

This lovely woman was rich in gifts, the best that intellect, character, and devotion to high ideals represent in the great organization of which she was so vital a part. . . . . Her's a fidelity that never faltered, a loyalty that never relaxed, a patience

that never wearied, a wisdom that rarely erred, and an unselfish devotion that knew no limit. Never can we forget or cease to cherish her precious memory, rich in all that is most gracious in womanliness, strong and clear in intellect, pure in heart, sweet and noble in spirit, splendid in example, and with a magnetism that drew all hearts to her. . . . . What she did and what she was contained the germs of greater things, whose influence is to be felt in ever-broadening lines of service—the real and enduring, though invisible, force that makes for the happiness and betterment and uplift of humanity.

This sketch is written chiefly for those women students of the University of Chicago to whose college life Ida Noyes Hall may contribute some element of interest and charm. It has been the desire of the builder of the Hall that they should know who Ida Noyes was, that she should not be to them a name only, but a real woman, with whom, knowing the story of her life, they should feel acquainted, and from whose history they should perhaps derive some inspiration for studious, active, brave, high-minded, helpful, useful careers.

NATHANIEL COLVER

NATHANIEL COLVER, D.D.

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

To the Rev. Charles Kendrick Colver belongs the distinction of having made the first cash contribution for the founding of the new University of Chicago. The amount was $100 and was paid to the writer of these pages. There were earlier subscriptions, but the first actual cash received came from Charles K. Colver, son of Dr. Nathaniel Colver. Like his distinguished father he was a Baptist minister

Born May 22, 1821, in Clarendon, Vermont, he grew up in sympathy with his father's views on theology and reform. Graduated with honors from Brown University in 1842 and from Newton Theological Institution in 1845, he occupied various pastorates up to 1879, when he moved to Chicago, that his daughter might attend the University. He died in this city October 24, 1896.

Susan Esther Colver was born in South Abington, Massachusetts, November 15, 1859. She was graduated from the old University of Chicago, class of 1882, receiving the degree of A.B., and later (in 1886) of A.M. She also became an accomplished musician. She inherited much of what may be called the typical Colver intellect and character as exemplified in her grandfather and father. She was also noted for generosity, geniality, independence, and energy. She gave her life unreservedly to the cause of education. She was in the service of the public schools of Chicago from October 26, 1882, to June 26, 1912. She was principal of the Horace Mann School from August 20, 1890, to March 21, 1911, and principal of the Nathanael Greene School from March 21, 1911, to June 26, 1912. She was unusually successful both as a teacher and as a principal. In fact, many persons thought that as a principal she made her school one of the best in the city, this being especially true of the Horace Mann School. She was a member of the Immanuel Baptist Church of Chicago. She was married to Jesse L. Rosenberger, a lawyer of Chicago, July 2, 1912, as the culmination of a long acquaintance. She died in Chicago November 19, 1918.

Jesse Leonard Rosenberger was born in Lake City, Minnesota, January 6, 1860. His youth was spent in the village of Maiden Rock, Wisconsin. When about 17 or 18, he taught several terms of country school.

He was a student at the old University of Chicago, but was graduated from the University of Rochester, receiving the degrees of A.B. and A.M. He was graduated from the Chicago College of Law, and received the degree of LL.B. from Lake Forest University. He was admitted to the bar of Illinois, and maintained an office in Chicago for the practice of law until 1915, but gradually came, by preference, to giving more and more of his time to various forms of writing, principally on legal and business subjects, for publication, as well as to doing some editing and publishing.

Mr. and Mrs. Rosenberger had been students in the old University of Chicago, and personal reminiscence and family tradition combined to interest them in the fortunes of the new University. In March, 1915, they united in conveying to the University the old Colver homestead on Thirty-fifth Street, west of Cottage Grove Avenue, Chicago. The purpose of this gift was the founding of the Nathaniel Colver Lectureship and Publication Fund, Mrs. Rosenberger desiring to honor the name and perpetuate the memory of her grandfather in the institution which was the successor of that in which he had given instruction fifty years before.

On June 7 of the same year Mr. and Mrs. Rosenberger provided for the endowment of what will eventually be the Colver-Rosenberger Lecture Fund, in this donation associating with their own name that of Charles K. Colver, Mrs. Rosenberger's father.

Less than three months later, September 2, 1915, they established a Colver-Rosenberger Fellowship Fund to provide ultimately a fellowship, desiring in this to associate with their family name that of the father, Charles, and of the grandfather, Nathaniel.

On February 4, 1915, they provided for the doubling of this fund, and on the next day they provided for the eventual establishment of what is to be known as the Colver-Rosenberger Scholarship, again associating with their own the name of the father and the grandfather.

On April 5, 1917, they gave $1,000, later increased to $2,000, to establish at once a fund for an honor medal or cash prize to be known as The Rosenberger Medal or The Rosenberger Prize, founded by Mr. and Mrs. Jesse L. Rosenberger, the medal or prize "to be awarded in recognition of achievement through research, in authorship, in invention, for discovery, for unusual public service, or for anything deemed of great benefit to humanity."

It will be noticed that three of these benefactions are wholly or partly in honor of Nathaniel Colver, and this sketch has to do particu-

larly with his life. He bore the name of his father and his grandfather, both Baptist ministers in New England and New York. They were not educated men, and, preaching in the scattered settlements of Revolutionary and pre-Revolutionary days, received little remuneration, supporting themselves largely by farming. They preached for the love of preaching. The Nathaniel Colver of whom I write was born, one of eleven children, in Orwell, near Lake Champlain, Addison County, Vermont, May 10, 1794. He was little more than a year old, however, when his father took the family to a farm in Champlain, New York. They no doubt traveled the hundred miles by water, up the lake to Rouse's Point, the northeast corner of New York, and then five or eight miles by the Champlain River to the settlement of the same name where the new farm was located and where, although there were only thirteen families in two townships, the father began at once to preach as well as to cultivate his land. The country was a wilderness, but the population slowly increased and churches were organized in course of time in Champlain and other places. The family was poor, none of them strong and well except the boy Nathaniel. He grew up to a life of toil. Either there were scant opportunities for schooling or the pressure of the family needs gave him no time for school. At all events two winters at school were all he ever had. He grew fast and became tall and robust. He was strong as an ox, red-blooded, and eager to get all he could out of his youth and the frontier wilderness about him. And what a country that was for an active, vigorous, fun-loving, adventurous, courageous lad. Within sight of his home to the north were the forests of Canada. A few miles down the river were the upper reaches of Lake Champlain. The rivers and brooks were the home of the trout. The woods were full of many kinds of game. In his last days Dr. Colver visited these scenes of his youth. "There," he wrote, "I learned to trap the muskrat and the mink, and also the wolf and the bear. I could remember in what direction and about where, in the wilderness as it then was, my brother next older and myself caught four wolves in one winter. We caught them in fox traps, and by fastening the trap to the end of a pole the wolf was unable to pull his foot out," the heavy pole acting only as a drag. The boy was not able, however, to get out of this wonderful boy's world all the joy of youth he might have had under happier circumcumstances. He continues, "In my father's family there was much hard sickness. I, only, had good health, and mine was the lot of service and toil." His lack of schooling was not compensated by any home advantages. The only books he recalled as being in the house in those early

years were the Bible, a "psalm-book," a spelling-book, and the "Third Part," so barren was his life of any opportunities of education. Being naturally eager for knowledge he became during these early years thoroughly familiar with the Bible. He says, "I had nothing else to feed my mind with, and so I ate up the Bible," which "my mother early taught me to read and love." When asked in later life where he graduated, he replied, "In the northeast corner of New York, in a log heap."

The hard life of the frontier continued till he was fifteen years old, when the family moved to West Stockbridge, Massachusetts, where a little over fifty years before Jonathan Edwards had produced the works on which his fame is founded.

Although young Colver was still a lad he was, in this removal, sent on in advance of the family, and all of the journey not made by water he accomplished on foot. He was now apprenticed to a tanner and furrier and learned, among other things, shoemaking. The war of 1812 came on, and, when in 1814 New York was threatened, Colver, then in his twentieth year, volunteered and served for some months with the army concentrated in that city for its defense. He became shoemaker for his fellow-soldiers.

Up to his army experience there is not the slightest evidence that the boy possessed any unusual gifts. But he now, all at once, gave proof of hitherto hidden powers. A comrade was arrested and taken before a magistrate. Young Colver, believing him innocent, appeared and asked permission to defend him and did this with such eloquence and power that not only was the soldier acquitted, but a gentleman present sought out the youthful advocate and offered, if he desired to make the law his profession, to put him in the way of obtaining a legal education. Although he was only twenty years old he was already contemplating marriage, and a long course of study did not appeal to him. The war ending, he returned home and on April 27, 1815, a few days before his twenty-first birthday, married Sally Clark and began life for himself. He fully intended to follow the business he had learned, but in 1817, when twenty-three years old, he became the subject of an old-fashioned conversion and this changed the direction of his life. He did not indeed choose the ministry. It rather chose him. Immediately after his conversion the people began to say that he must preach. A call coming from a neighboring church for someone to supply the pulpit, the deacons drafted young Colver into the service. Reluctantly he went and told the people that he could not preach, but would lead a prayer meeting. They assured him that this would not do. They were expecting a ser-

mon and a sermon they must have. But he said, "I cannot preach. I have not even a text." Thereupon one of them suggested, "This is a faithful saying, and worthy of all acceptation, that Jesus Christ came into the world to save sinners." "Well," the young man said, "I think I do know a little about that," and went into the pulpit. The record of his biographer, Dr. Justin A. Smith, is as follows:

> The subject opened to him beyond his expectation, and while all were delighted and surprised at the sermon which followed, he himself was more surprised than any of them. At the close it was announced without consulting him that he would preach again in the afternoon, and at the close of this sermon that he would preach a third sermon at a school house a few miles away. This last was the best of all. His father and mother were present, and the joyful old man, turning to his wife as the service ended, exclaimed, "Our Nathaniel is a preacher."

That day's experience settled the question. He was, indeed, without theological training. He did not even have a common-school education. He suffered from these handicaps throughout his life. But he was a natural preacher and orator. He lacked the discipline of study, the intellectual acquisitions of learning, and the culture of education, and these serious deficiencies long obscured the extraordinary natural abilities he possessed. He was ordained in 1819 at West Clarendon, Vermont, being then twenty-five years old. Two years later he accepted a call to Fort Covington, New York, fifty miles west of Champlain, where he had spent his boyhood, and also on the Canadian border within five or six miles of the St. Lawrence River. It was a wilderness country. Almost any morning he could see deer from his study window. There was no church. Not a man in the town professed religion. He was called by and became pastor of the community. They promised him a salary of $400, of which $242 was to be paid in cash, the balance "in the produce of the country necessary for the support of the family." A strong church resulted from Mr. Colver's labors, and he preached as a missionary and an agent of Hamilton Theological Seminary all over that part of New York lying north of the Adirondack Mountains. Losing his wife in 1823, he married in 1825 Mrs. Sarah F. Carter, of Plattsburg.

After remaining eight years at Fort Covington he became pastor at Kingsbury and Fort Ann, in Washington County, New York, southeast of the Adirondacks. In 1834 he was called to Holmesburg, a suburb of Philadelphia. The circumstances which led to this call reveal the sort of preacher ten years of experience in wilderness and country places had made of him. Failing health having led him to visit Philadelphia he

had gone into the First Baptist Church in which the distinguished pastor, Dr. Brantley, was conducting a "protracted" meeting. Having been introduced as a minister he was invited to preach. He had been preaching but a few minutes when the pastor "discovered that the stranger was a man of no common power in the pulpit. As he progressed the impression was deepened, and by the time he had concluded his discourse, pastor and people were bathed in tears and made haste to thank the Lord for sending such a preacher among them," and at once prevailed on him to continue his preaching through the rest of the meeting. So great was the impression that a year and a half later they sent for him to assist them in another meeting. Speaking of Mr. Colver's preaching the pastor wrote:

> On Sunday evening the crowd was beyond all example in our place of worship. After all the seats above and below in our spacious house had been filled, the aisles were supplied with benches until no more could be introduced, and the whole space was literally crowded. The preacher's lips appeared to be touched as with a live coal from the altar. After remaining till ten o'clock at night without manifesting the least impatience, the congregation was dismissed; but though dispersed, the people appeared unwilling to leave the house and the greater part of them remained, whilst inquirers to the number of about one hundred came forward.

Dr. Brantley did not rest until he had brought Mr. Colver to the suburb of Holmesburg. He remained, however, only a few months. But during that time he had the joy of welcoming into the church the son already mentioned, Charles K. Colver, then in his fourteenth year. The pastorate was brought to a sudden termination by an urgent call to the Union Village Church, Greenwich, New York, near his former field in Washington County. The church was one of the largest and most influential in eastern New York. Rev. Edward Barber had served it for more than forty years, Mr. Colver having been associated with him for a time while pastor at Kingsbury. On the death of its aged minister the church at once sent for Mr. Colver, and its position and prestige were such that he does not seem to have thought it possible to decline the call. It was during the two years previous to the old pastor's death that Mr. Colver had been associated with him and had devoted a great deal of his time to work in the church. Mainly as the result of these labors three hundred converts were baptized. His own sole pastorate in the Union Village church was one of the most remarkable and fruitful in his career. In the four years it continued he baptized three hundred and ninety, making, for the whole period of six years, six hundred and ninety. It was a wonderful experience and a marvelous

record. How could a man leave the pastorate of such a church in the midst of his usefulness and at the height of his success?

That is the story I wish now to tell. In the early years of his ministry he joined the Masons, but as he took one degree after another he became increasingly dissatisfied, and when it came to oaths to protect Masons even though guilty of crime and of treason, he revolted, left the order and joined, at great personal sacrifice, the anti-Masonic crusade of the last century. Not that he neglected his duties as a minister. His ministry was always his first business. But after 1830 he held his place among the foremost advocates of anti-Masonry. He was called on frequently through many years to address anti-Masonic meetings and conventions in many parts of the country. Dr. J. A. Smith declares, "It is not too much to say that among those who were chiefly instrumental in arousing and directing public sentiment with reference to the wrong and peril of secret orders such as that of Masonry, Nathaniel Colver ranked always with the very foremost." No doubt much that he denounced has been reformed.

Mr. Colver also early became an ardent advocate of the temperance reformation. He became a popular lecturer on temperance. He was sent as a delegate to conventions, and his eloquence placed him among the temperance leaders of the country. Writing of this phase of his work Dr. J. D. Fulton said:

> Memories of his rising in his place at a great temperance convention in Saratoga, New York, where he confronted and opposed Governor Briggs on a question of policy, live in the minds of men at this hour. Such was his power that the currents of thought were changed. The master-spirit had appeared. He spoke over an hour, apparently without premeditation, but in so telling a manner that he carried the convention with him, and Governor Briggs, familiar with the palmiest efforts of Henry Clay and Webster, declared he had never listened to such oratory before. There was that in the squint of the eye, the pucker of the mouth, the wave of the hand, the tone of voice, which would set an audience into a roar of laughter, or smite the rock of feeling with the touch of his wand, causing fountains of tears to gush forth.

The third great reform to which Mr. Colver devoted himself was antislavery. He became widely known as an ardent abolitionist. His zeal and abilities brought him into intimate association with antislavery leaders and he quickly came into wide prominence. In the Baptist denomination he was one of the leaders in disfellowshipping slaveholders and organizing the American Baptist Antislavery Convention. He was a delegate from that Convention to the World's Antislavery Convention in London in 1840. William Lloyd Garrison and Wendell Phillips were there. Taking an active part in the Convention were Prince Albert,

Clarkson, Daniel O'Connell, Lord Brougham, Guizot, and members of the English nobility. Early in the sessions Mr. Colver was called out and compelled to speak absolutely without premeditation. But it was in just these circumstances that his genius flamed forth. His speech produced so great an effect that he was publicly and warmly congratulated and in the after-proceedings was one of the recognized leaders. Mr. Colver's championship of the cause of freedom continued with unabated zeal till the final triumph.

This review of the three great reforms to which Mr. Colver gave his life brings us back to the reasons that led him to leave the Union Village Church and the seven hundred converts who had flocked into it under his ministry. In 1838 the reforms he advocated were none of them popular. If he had been seeking popularity and pastorates in large and powerful churches he would have eschewed them all. They raised up against him multitudes of enemies in his own denomination. Many churches, and most of all the large churches of the cities, were closed against him. They regarded him as a fanatic and a trouble breeder and would have nothing to do with him as a pastor. It so happened, however, that in the city of Boston there was a Baptist layman like-minded with him. This was Timothy Gilbert, who for years had cherished the purpose of founding a Baptist church in which the seats should be free and which should be committed to those reforms which Mr. Colver advocated. In his memoir of Timothy Gilbert, Dr. Fulton writes:

> In 1838 Mr. Colver was in Connecticut lecturing [on slavery]. He had been mobbed and vilified, but he had triumphed gloriously. Flushed with victory, he came to Boston and spoke at the Capitol and at Marlboro Chapel. There Timothy Gilbert saw him. Jonathan had found his David. He was at this time forty-four years of age. His power of mind was fully developed. . . . . Timothy Gilbert no sooner saw him than he beheld a standard bearer. An agreement was made that if the brethren in Boston would procure a place of worship and organize a church opposed to secret organizations, intemperance, and slavery, and in favor of free seats, he would become their pastor.

This was the way Mr. Colver came to leave the amazingly successful work he was doing in the Union Village Church and undertake a pastorate in the metropolis of New England. He saw an opportunity of building up from the foundations a new church of his own faith, fully committed to all the great reforms he advocated, in the very center of culture, of population, and of power. It was thus he came to Boston in the autumn of 1839. He was in his forty-sixth year and during the thirteen years of his pastorate reached the fulness of his great powers. That he had great powers as a thinker and an orator cannot be doubted.

There has never been a nobler group of preachers in Boston than there was during the fifties of the last century. But none of them had greater popular gifts than Colver. A distinguished southern minister after a long visit in Boston was persuaded to go and hear him. When asked how he liked him, his reply was, "I abhor the man's abolitionism, but he is the best preacher I have heard in Boston." He was above the middle height, large-framed, symmetrically built, with a benevolent but powerful face, altogether of a dignified and commanding presence. Telling of one of his missionary tours before this date, a writer begins thus, "A noble-looking man called at a public house in New Lebanon Springs, New York, just in the edge of evening and inquired if there were any Christians there who held evening meetings." That describes him exactly. He was a noble-looking man. He had a most expressive countenance and a voice of great sweetness, compass, and power. He had all the natural gifts of a great speaker and on occasions was an orator of surpassing eloquence. He lacked only one thing—the mental discipline of a liberal education. It was this lack that made him an occasional orator only. It was this that made him adopt a uniform, cast-iron method of preparing a sermon. I have before me a dozen of his plans of sermons. They are all constructed on the following model: (1) introductory exposition of the text; (2) doctrine; (3) reflections. He knew no other method.

It was this lack of the mental discipline of a liberal education that made regular habits of daily study impossible for him and led him sometimes to enter the pulpit without having prepared a sermon or even chosen a text. He had a fatal gift of extemporaneous speech.

But notwithstanding these handicaps he had a great and useful ministry in Boston. Out of that ministry came the church and movement famous in Baptist history as Tremont Temple. In 1842 one hundred and thirty-six converts were baptized. This pastorate was the golden period of Mr. Colver's life. As pastorates go it was a long one—thirteen years. The time came, however, when Deacon Gilbert began to criticize him because he had a shop in his backyard where he indulged his genius for invention, because he didn't spend enough time in his study, and because he was not enough in the homes of the people. The friendship of the two was not broken, but in 1852 Mr. Colver resigned. It was a curious coincidence that on the night he resigned Tremont Temple was destroyed by fire. The pastor went from the meeting as a guest of Deacon Gilbert and during the night the Temple was burned to the ground.

Mr. Colver was now one of the most distinguished and capable preachers of the denomination and would naturally have gone to one of its important churches. But the prejudice created by his agitation against Masonry and slavery was so great and widespread that the only settlement immediately open to him was in a small suburb of Boston, South Abington. Here he remained only one year and then went to the First Baptist Church of Detroit, Michigan, where he had a not very fruitful pastorate of four years. The church was not a strong one, and in 1856 Mr. Colver accepted a call to the First Baptist Church of Cincinnati, where he remained a little over four years. The church was a rather feeble body when he took charge of it. He was at the time sixty-two years old, but in Cincinnati he renewed his youth and labored with tremendous energy and power. He held great revival meetings, preaching every night for many months together. Hundreds of converts were baptized and the church was greatly strengthened. His Cincinnati pastorate extended from his sixty-second to his sixty-sixth or sixty-seventh year, and he received during this period the degree of D.D. from Denison University. He made the distinct impression that he was a great preacher and a great man. Rev. Dr. Aydelotte, a Presbyterian pastor of the same period, wrote of him as follows:

> After a brief exordium we were brought to feel the power of a giant intellect. . . . . As he went on, his body as well as his spirit seemed rising upward—heavenward—while he poured out one continuous stream of captivating, melting, richest, sacred eloquence. It was not merely the eloquence of intellectual talent, or of high moral and spiritual culture; it was something in addition to all these—it was a rare, heaven-born genius shedding a hallowed glow of beauty, of power, of sublimity over every statement, every argument, every appeal. . . . . We have at times endeavored, notwithstanding all the fascination of his eloquence, to listen with the severest critical accuracy: and we were filled with astonishment, when we called to mind the deficiencies of his early education, that we could rarely discover a solecism or grammatical error in his language, and that his figures of speech were so apt and pure—always in strict accordance with the nicest rules of rhetoric. . . . . His was often the highest style of sacred oratory—a glorious preacher. . . . . We never expect to see another Dr. Colver.

Such was the testimony of a fellow-pastor of another denomination. It is only one of many like it relating to Dr. Colver after he had passed threescore years.

Dr. Colver's last pastorate was with the Tabernacle Baptist Church, Chicago. It began in 1861 and continued till 1864. The church was not large and was badly located. The pastor was no longer in vigorous health. But, as Dr. Smith, his biographer, says:

The closing period of his pastorate was marked by an incident of the greatest interest and importance to the church . . . . putting the Tabernacle Church upon a basis wholly new, and starting it upon a course of prosperity unexampled in its previous history. The house occupied by the First Church—an excellent brick structure—was, with its furniture and appurtenances of every kind, given to the Tabernacle Church. The house was taken down, removed to the new location on the corner of Morgan and Monroe streets, and there re-created, with improvements made then and since which rendered it one of the most attractive houses of worship in the city. The Tabernacle Church, with the members, some sixty in number, of the First Church proposing to join them, united in a new organization which, taking the name of the Second Baptist Church of Chicago, has now, with God's blessing, won a title to be named with the largest, most enterprising, most widely influential of the Baptist churches of America. [This was written in 1873.] While these changes were in progress Dr. Colver retained his pastorate of the Tabernacle Church. He felt, however, that the new church now formed should have a new pastor, a younger man, able to undertake a service impossible to one who had already reached his threescore years and ten. It was therefore with his most cheerful acquiescence that the joint church called to its pastorate Rev. E. J. Goodspeed, of Janesville, Wisconsin. He welcomed the new pastor to his field with cordial words, publicly spoken, and ever after, to the end of his own life, co-operated with him in every way . . . . rejoicing . . . . in the signal success which attended his ministry.

At the close of 1864 the writer of these pages was beginning his ministry as pastoral supply of the North Baptist Church, Chicago. Responding in March, 1865, when he was twenty-two years old, to the last draft of the War of the Rebellion, he received ordination before reporting in Rochester, New York, for duty. He has always recalled with pride that his ordination sermon was preached by Dr. Colver, who was fifty years his senior.

The service of three years with the Tabernacle Church was Dr. Colver's last regular pastorate, though he continued to preach as long as he could stand in a pulpit. He had no thought of ceasing from labor. After coming to the West he had felt an increasing interest in the education of young men for the ministry. In Chicago he entered with enthusiasm into the plans for establishing the Baptist Union Theological Seminary. He had strong convictions as to the teaching of theology, believing that it should be strictly biblical. He was invited to inaugurate the work of instruction preliminary to the establishing of the proposed seminary, and in 1865 and 1866 he taught theological classes in connection with the old University of Chicago. In pursuance of his view that instruction should be purely biblical he prepared and gave to his classes a course of lectures founded solely on the Epistle to the Romans. Three of his personal friends in New England, W. W. Cook, of Whitehall, New York, and Mial Davis and Lawrence Barnes, of

Burlington, Vermont, contributed $7,500 for the work of instruction, given originally to pay his salary, but surrendered by him to the seminary, and his former church in Cincinnati took preliminary steps to transfer a piece of real estate.

But this work was cut short by a call that had behind it the imperative of nearly half a century of warfare for the freedom of the slave. A movement was organized to educate colored men for the ministry among their own people, and Dr. Colver was induced to undertake the inauguration of the work of instruction for the freedmen in Richmond, Virginia. In feeble and failing health he began this new service in May, 1867. But a year of heroic toil brought him to the end of his strength, and he returned in 1868 to his home in Chicago to rest from his labors. He had lost his wife in April of that year. He himself died two and a half years later, on September 25, 1870, in the seventy-seventh year of his age. But the work in Richmond did not die. Started in Lumpkin's jail, an old slave pen, it developed into Colver Institute, now known as Richmond Theological Seminary, a part of Virginia Union University.

Dr. Colver was a many-sided, highly gifted man. He had a genial humor and a very active wit. He rarely, if ever, met his superior in the give and take of debate. On occasions he was eloquent beyond almost any of the great orators of his day. He had a natural gift for poetical composition, writing for the choirs of his churches scores of hymns which were sung on special occasions. He often thought in numbers, as once when visiting John G. Whittier and invited by him to attend the Quaker meeting. Mr. Whittier told him he must keep silent, that a man named Beach was then in prison for speaking in their meeting. "It was a silent meeting," said Dr. Colver. "One man got asleep and so did I." When they returned home and Whittier inquired how he liked the meeting Colver replied:

Well, John, since thou a Quaker art,
Go to, I'll tell thee all my heart.
Quite plain, but neat, the place I found;
A solemn stillness reigned around.
I took a seat and down I sat,
And gazed upon a Quaker hat,
While all around, in solemn mood,
I ween were thinking something good.
But still I eyed that Quaker hat—
The crown was low, the brim was flat,
It canopied a noble pate,
Who still in solemn silence sate.

I thought him thinking of his God,
When lo! the hat began to nod!
The spirit moved to use my speech:
I should, but then I thought of Beach.
I longed his drowsy soul to waken,
But thought it best to save my bacon;
And—would you think me such a chap?
I gave it up and took a nap.

Dr. Colver was a man of power. He always made this impression: "In stature higher than the average, the proportions of his figure were, in the days of his prime, well-nigh perfect, matched as they were by a face and head that were the fitting crown of a noble form." Men spoke of his noble presence; and the glory of his eloquence, which was the expression of an uncommon intellect, made an extraordinary impression of power. As he approached the close of his career his reflections on all that he had lost by his lack of early advantages led him to devote his later years to providing candidates for the ministry opportunities for an education which he in his youth had not had. This interest in the education of young men for the ministry brought him into connection with the first University of Chicago. It made him one of the founders of the Baptist Union Theological Seminary and its earliest professor. All this makes it singularly appropriate and gratifying that in lectureships, fellowships, and scholarships his name, with that of his children, should be enduringly associated with the new University and its school of theology.

CHARLES H. SMILEY

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

A special interest attaches to the story of the establishment in the University of the Charles H. Smiley Scholarship. For Mr. Smiley was a colored man, probably, though not certainly, born in slavery and brought up in such poverty as to have had no opportunities of education. It is uncertain when or how he reached Chicago or what his earlier employments were. He became, however, a waiter, and though this was a lowly calling his business insight revealed to him its opportunities. He saw that by frugality and good management he might become his own employer and this he finally did. He became a caterer and conducted that business for many years at 76 East Twenty-second Street under his own name, Charles H. Smiley. He developed remarkable efficiency, and his uniform courtesy and sterling integrity made him a great favorite with many of the best people. He became indeed one of the best-known and most popular caterers of the city. He did not, however, without difficulties achieve success. Judge Jesse A. Baldwin, who knew him well, says:

> A good many years ago, while I was practicing law, he came to me and told me that he was tied up financially and that he would have to come to some understanding with his creditors. He gave me a list of his creditors with the amount he owed each one, and he gave me an account of his assets. He asked me to make the transfer. He came in a few days later, after I had seen his creditors, feeling downcast. "Charlie, your creditors feel sorry for you," I told him, "and I can settle with them for fifty cents on the dollar." With tears rolling down his face he said: "I couldn't do that, Mr. Jesse. My mother borned me poor, but she borned me honest. I don't care if there ain't anything left."

The Judge concludes, "I never had a client who was more insistent on being honest." Mr. Smiley recovered from this temporary backset and, giving strict attention to business, prospered in a modest way until he came to be recognized as one of the successful colored men of Chicago. He numbered many white men among his friends, some of them men of high character as well as large means.

In March, 1909, Mr. Smiley again visited his friend and attorney Judge Baldwin to consult him about making a will. Such was his confidence in the Judge that he asked his recommendations as to the bene-

CHARLES H. SMILEY

ficiaries of his estate. He explained that he was becoming conscious of physical ailments and felt that he ought to make suitable provision concerning the disposition of the little property he had, aggregating in value a little more than $11,000. Having no wife, there was but one member of his family for whom he wished to provide. He then explained that Chicago had been very hospitable to him and that in Chicago he had acquired whatever he possessed of reputation and property, so that he would like to leave a liberal share to some institution in Chicago which would perpetuate his desire to make a little money useful in developing character. Not long after this conference with the Judge he returned and indicated that he wished to make a bequest that would help to give to poor young people, particularly of his own race, the advantages of education which had been denied to him.

Like many other persons who contemplate making a will Mr. Smiley did not at once carry out his purpose. It was not until March 15, 1911, that his will was finally executed. It contained the following provision:

> I direct that my said Executor and trustee shall pay to the University of Chicago the sum of Three Thousand Dollars ($3,000) as and for Endowment, creating a Scholarship to be known as "Charles H. Smiley Scholarship," which shall be administered by the Board of Trustees of said University, as they may from time to time decide wise—hereby expressing the preference that the proceeds of such Scholarship shall be used for the benefit of poor but promising students, preferably of the colored race, though not at all intending this as any limitation upon their right to use the same as they see fit. I am making this bequest because of my limited opportunities to acquire an education and my desire to aid others in acquiring an education.

While the executing of the will had been waiting for two years, the condition of Mr. Smiley's health had been growing more and more precarious. He died suddenly and unexpectedly on March 25, 1911, only ten days after the signing of his will. The University received the full amount of the bequest, $3,000, on June 15, 1912, since which time the scholarship, yielding about $150 a year, has been awarded to poor but promising students of the colored race as often as such students have made application. And thus this humble black man has made his life a fountain of perennial blessing to his race and to the world.

GALUSHA ANDERSON

At the meeting of the Board of Trustees of the University held August 13, 1918, the Secretary was requested to prepare a memorial of the late Professor Galusha Anderson. He submitted the following, which was inserted in the minutes of the Board and also sent to Dr. Anderson's family:

Galusha Anderson, professor of homiletics in the Divinity School of the University from 1892 until 1904, when he was retired, died at Wenham, Massachusetts, July 20, 1918. He was born at Clarendon, New York, March 7, 1832. He was graduated from the University of Rochester in 1854 and from Rochester Theological Seminary in 1856. During these eighty-six years he lived a useful and strenuous life, serving in various positions of importance and exerting a beneficent and widespread influence.

In St. Louis, during the trying period of the Civil War, his outstanding patriotism and loyalty to the Union were most helpful to the cause of freedom and to the stability of the national government, and these qualities of mind and spirit were manifested in a region where and at a time when to be true to the underlying principles of the Republic was often unpopular and sometimes dangerous.

His ministerial labors, which began in Janesville, Wisconsin, and later were continued in St. Louis, Brooklyn, and Chicago, were characterized by vigorous thinking and by earnest endeavor to help men and women to higher planes of living. His message sought to establish righteousness by changing the minds of men and thus developing high moral character rather than to play upon human emotions.

It was as an educator, however, that Dr. Anderson will be longest remembered. He was professor of homiletics in Newton (Massachusetts) Theological Institution for seven years. In 1878 he was elected president of the old University of Chicago and there remained until 1885. The period of his presidency was one environed by difficulties. The institution was hopelessly involved in debts, debts which at length caused its collapse. Chicago had not recovered from the financial losses and social upheavals of two great fires, nor from the commercial disaster of the panic of the seventies. The counsels of the University's friends were

Painted by Frederic Vinton

GALUSHA ANDERSON

divided. The student body was gradually disintegrating. Dr. Anderson's heroic struggle on behalf of the University proved unavailing, but it is not too much to say that his efforts to keep it alive had reward in the firmly established conviction that in the imperial city of Chicago there ought to be a great university. Subsequent to the passing of the old University he became president of Denison University at Granville, Ohio, and later professor of homiletics in the Baptist Union Theological Seminary at Morgan Park, which in due time became the Divinity School of the University of Chicago, in which he occupied the same chair.

Dr. Anderson's vigor of mind appeared to be a logical sequence of his vigorous body. He impressed those with whom he came in contact and particularly his hearers with the sturdy character of his thinking and the tenacity with which he held to his convictions, notably those in which right and wrong were involved. He ever stood firmly for political honesty, justice, righteousness, and the good of humanity. Indeed, his whole career, as discerned in his sterling character and his moral earnestness, was characteristic of the highest type of American manhood.

His oldest son pays this noble tribute to his father:

"He was built four-square to every wind that blew. He was simple, sturdy, honest, affectionate, generous, and brave. Sanity and devotion were the keynotes of his character. He was one of the hardest and most persistent workers I have ever known. He was a true leader, an efficient pastor, a master of extempore preaching, a clear and forcible writer, but pre-eminent as a practical teacher."

It was moved and seconded to approve the memorial, to insert the same in the records of the Board, and to request the Secretary to transmit a copy to Dr. Anderson's family, and, a vote having been taken, the motion was declared adopted.

SAMUEL WENDELL WILLISTON 1852-1918[1]

DR. WILLISTON'S WORK IN ENTOMOLOGY, IN MEDICINE, AND AS STUDENT OF THE EVOLUTION OF LIFE

By FRANK RATTRAY LILLIE, Ph.D.
Professor of Embryology, Chairman of the Department of Zoölogy

Dr. Williston came to the University of Chicago in 1902 as Professor of Vertebrate Paleontology. He succeeded George Baur (1892–97), an able scholar who brought the best traditions of paleontology to this University with the group of scientists from Clark University at the time of our foundation. Many of us remember Professor Baur as a fine type of scholar, exhaustive in his knowledge, burning with love for his subject, and an indefatigable investigator. Professor Baur was not only a paleontologist but an enthusiastic student of living vertebrates and of island fauna, and his studies of the Galápagos Islands and of the lizards and giant tortoises there found are classic pieces of work. After the death of Professor Baur in 1897 the chair of paleontology remained vacant until the appointment of Professor Williston in 1902 continued its scholarly tradition.

Many of his colleagues in the University of Chicago may think of Professor Williston as a man with one consuming interest which enlisted all his enthusiasm and activity. He came to us rather late in life, privileged to devote himself heart and mind to the problems of the evolution of life that had been his chief interest in a varied career, running through the web of his life like a golden band. He was now released from the many administrative and pedagogical responsibilities which had accompanied him on his journey so far, and was to enter on that supreme privilege of the scholar in the afternoon and twilight of a busy life, the unimpeded pursuit of his subject and its extension by investigation, and by training a selected group of students in its technique and philosophy.

It was in this phase of his life that we knew him—at times away from the University on expeditions to secure the materials of research

[1] At a memorial meeting held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, Sunday, December 9, 1918, these addresses were delivered.

Painted by C. A. Corwin

SAMUEL WENDELL WILLISTON

from the strata of the West and Southwest; then returned to the University, working with loving care in the technique of preparation; laying bare the precious evidences of the life of bygone ages; drawing with his own hands, studying, and interpreting; superintending the preparation of the specimens for permanent record; publishing the results.

Each specimen was studied, not only as accurately as possible as individual and species, but as representative of the great process of evolution, the vague outline of which we clearly perceive, but the course and processes of which will always form matter for study. Some paleontologists have been primarily craftsmen, others have allowed speculation to outrun results. It was a great merit of Dr. Williston that his love for detail and his desire for generalization were sanely balanced.

It was thus a matter not entirely of opportunity but also of selection on theoretical grounds that made the class of reptiles Williston's favorite subject of research. In the extinct members of this class are found the connecting links with lower vertebrates and also the ancestral forms of birds and of mammals. They exhibit besides an extreme of adaptive radiation which had run its course ages ago. They are a group in which all the great problems of paleontological research are abundantly illustrated.

We can do no more than touch on Dr. Williston's chief interest. The esteem in which he was held may, however, be more readily appreciated by these words of Professor Henry Fairfield Osborn, president of the American Museum of Natural History, himself now the leading vertebrate paleontologist of the world, written for the present occasion:

"Williston," as all his intimate friends called him, was the senior member of our profession in the United States; indeed, senior vertebrate paleontologist of the world. Since the death of Cope he has ranked as the foremost American student of the extinct reptilia. He has left a permanent mark on our knowledge of the marine reptiles of the Kansas Cretaceous, while his numerous contributions on the batrachians and reptiles of the Permo-Carboniferous are of capital importance.

Recalling his peculiarly American career as a self-made scientist who overcame obstacle after obstacle, and who from his earliest days set his heart upon observation and research, we feel that Williston was in a sense a typical American. With his many-sided training in anatomy, in medicine, in entomology, and in geology he combined the precision of an anatomist with the larger perspective of a naturalist; consequently his studies of extinct life were always illuminated by careful reconstructions of the environment and of the living relationships.

This combination of perception of form, of function, and of environment reached a high point in the volumes published by the University of Kansas and by the University of Chicago. It is a matter of everlasting regret that, beloved and honored

by all, he left the circle of our profession before he was able to complete what would have been his crowning life-work on the *Extinct and Living Reptiles of the World*. We can only rejoice that he has accomplished so much, and that he has encouraged so many of his younger colleagues, students, and successors, by his unstinted appreciation and enthusiasm, to follow in his footsteps.

However, we obtain only a small measure of Professor Williston if we know only that segment of his life that he lived among us. His father was a blacksmith, who emigrated from Boston to Manhattan, Kansas, in 1857, when our friend was five years old. Frontier conditions prevailed there. The Manhattan colony was from New England, and many of its members were abolitionists who had come to Kansas to colonize the territory and help John Brown preserve it to the "Free States." With such traditions of the founders of the town, a school was naturally the first public building erected, and an agricultural college was soon started. Owing to the mother's insistence the Williston children attended these means of grace regularly. Our friend, however, seems to have needed no urging; from the time he was seven years old he devoured literally every book on which he could lay his hands. He relates in his recollections that the

Emigrant's Aid Society sent to Manhattan a large box filled with old second-hand and tattered books. Such of these as were of any use in the schools were taken out, leaving it about half full of a most heterogeneous collection, from Baxter's *Saints' Rest* to goody-goody Sunday-school books. It was a gold mine to me, and I did not cease its exploration till everything readable was read, and everything was grist that came to my mill.

At fifteen years of age he read Lyell's *Antiquity of Man*, sitting up all night to finish it while a dance went on downstairs.

The teacher of science at Manhattan, Professor Mudge, was an important influence in his life and was no doubt chiefly responsible for the fact that Williston's life became devoted largely to natural science.

Williston was of an enterprising and adventurous disposition. At nineteen years of age he left home, went into railway construction, and became a railway surveyor and engineer. This phase terminated in about three years, when he returned to college and graduated. A second adventure in railroad surveying and engineering was of short duration. The panic of 1872–73 was then on, and times were hard. After some miscellaneous adventures Williston settled down to the study of medicine in the old way with a family physician; he secured a collection of human bones by excavating an old Indian burial ground. He studied chemistry in Manhattan College, lectured on Darwinism, and earned much hard criticism.

In the summer of 1873 he was invited to accompany Professor Mudge on a paleontological expedition to collect fossils for Professor Marsh, of Yale University. This changed the current of his life, and he became a paleontologist. Invited by Professor Marsh to come to Yale as his assistant, he reached New Haven in the spring of 1876. Refused permission to study or publish in paleontology on his own account, he took up the study of insects, specialized on flies (Diptera), and labored incessantly during his spare time, nights and holidays, in this field, in which he made many discoveries and rapidly became the leading specialist; nor did he ever entirely abandon this field of work.

He separated from Marsh as a consequence of illiberal treatment and resumed the study of medicine at Yale, earning his way by paleontological work for Cope, and graduated in medicine in 1880. He was then appointed assistant paleontologist in the government service, with residence at Yale. He took the degree of Ph.D. at Yale in 1885. Thereupon followed various vicissitudes—the offer of position of assistant entomologist in Washington, the practice of medicine in New Haven, the appointment as health officer of New Haven, and professor of anatomy at Yale. As health officer he carried through successfully an epidemic of smallpox in 1888, and issued various publications on public health.

In 1890 he was called to the University of Kansas as professor of geology and paleontology. This was an opportunity for which he had long waited, and he began at once that series of independent researches and publications in paleontology on which his fame chiefly rests.

He became the leading spirit in the faculty and did valiant work for the sciences. He introduced variety into the zoölogical work at Kansas, and himself taught physiology and histology, osteology and vertebrate anatomy, in addition to his regular work. He organized the medical school and became its dean; he was head and shoulders of the Sigma Xi Society and was prominent in the commercial club of the town, securing its backing for many University enterprises. His activity was prodigious.

With it all he never for a moment relaxed his energy in research, and paper followed paper in entomology and in paleontology. His advice to his advanced students and associates was that they should religiously spend a certain amount of time in research each day, whatever the requirements of routine. Two of my colleagues in other institutions have testified to me that this advice was a saving factor in their lives; and there are many others who experienced the impetus of his impulsive, always genial, spirit in research.

When Williston went to the University of Kansas from Yale he at once interested himself in the problems of medical education. His own early study in medicine had been carried out under a system "with almost no educational requirements for matriculation; nearly every medical institution in this country would graduate the average student after two courses of lectures, the second a repetition of the first, and each but of four or five months' duration."[1] Conditions had greatly improved when he went to Kansas, but the average medical school was still divorced from the university, and entrance requirements were low. He was one of the first, if not the first, to advocate the teaching of the fundamental branches of medicine by the university, and he succeeded in establishing a medical school in the University of Kansas to give only the first and second years' work in medicine by university departments.

In 1897, twenty-one years ago, he wrote:

> It is through the great universities, and especially the state universities, that the solution of the problems of professional education must come, and in fact has come, for some of the professions. With such cultural training as is best adapted to the lawyer's needs, the college course should include all the strictly non-professional branches, leaving the student, after he has completed his course as Bachelor of Arts in Law, to take up the work of the professional school and complete it in two years with the degree of Doctor of Laws. In the medical course there are even greater opportunities than in law. The medical colleges should resign to the undergraduate arts course all the non-professional branches. And the work rightfully belongs there. The best chemical laboratories in the United States are not in the medical colleges but in the universities. Nowhere are physiology, histology, and anatomy better taught than outside medical colleges. As in engineering, there should be a harmonious course leading through the high school to the Bachelor of Arts in Medicine, preparatory to two years of strictly professional work with the degree of Doctor of Medicine.
>
> When such training as this is demanded of all aspirants to professional practice we shall have uniformly well-educated men in the professions, and not until then.

This was written after he had established the University of Kansas Medical School on such a basis; it was not vague theorizing but the outcome of experience. It is an interesting fact that the system advocated by Professor Williston in medicine is almost precisely that adopted later by the University of Chicago; and, as this institution was enabled to organize in a much more thorough and effective way, the Chicago system became a model for several important institutions in the Middle West and West, and has exercised a strong influence on medical education.

It is said that Professor Williston literally wept when he made up his mind to leave Kansas and come to the University of Chicago. He

[1] *Science*, N.S., 1897, p. 863.

was leaving the state of his childhood, which he had seen grow from a poor frontier state to one prosperous and central; he was leaving the rich human associations of his early and middle life; he was leaving problems of administration and varied teaching responsibilities; he was leaving important paleontological collections that he had made largely with his own hands. That to which he was coming was the opportunity of the scholar to devote himself fully to his favorite subject. In spite of the varied nature of his early interests one feels that it was a consistent decision, and it was one that I am sure he never regretted.

In some brief recollections of his life written for his family Williston sums up his life thus:

> My plans and ambitions may seem fickle; first as an engineer, next as a physician, as a chemist, entomologist, paleontologist—I have tried various things. In reality there was only one ambition—to do research work in science. And I have realized that ambition in a measure. I have published about 300 books and papers totaling about 4,000 pages. But the chief satisfaction that I find now in looking back over my life is that I have been the means, to some extent at least, of assisting not a few young men to success in medicine and in science.

The life of Professor Williston is a precious heritage of the University, which we do well to cherish and honor. The University is consistent in so honoring him, for Professor Williston is only one of a number, already considerable, who have received from this University similar opportunities. Among all the many claims to the affection and respect of the community and country earned by the University of Chicago, none will last longer or rank higher than the tradition of opportunity and freedom for investigation so well established here.

DR. WILLISTON AS A TEACHER

By ERMINE COWLES CASE, Ph.D., CHICAGO, 1895
Professor of Historical Geology and Paleontology, University of Michigan

In speaking to you of Dr. Williston as a teacher I find myself hesitating between two strong inclinations. On the one hand I would pay tribute to the depth of learning, the skill in presentation, and the enthusiasm and sympathy which brought every student under his spell and made his very technical subject a most fascinating study to all who attended his classes. In all verity he stirred the dead bones; he clothed the skeletons in flesh, and the long-stilled forms passed in procession through their proper environment before our eyes, revealing the evolution of each group as in a panorama; and all this without sacrificing

one necessary detail or one item of the truth to make the story more attractive.

On the other hand I am tempted to relate a succession of anecdotes, many of them tinged with humor, that would reveal to you the real man as he was disclosed to us, his students, in the classroom and in the trying intimacies of remote camps. For the Doctor, as we liked to call him, was a very human person; with all his store of knowledge, his high position in the scientific world, and the honors which came to him, he remained a simple-mannered, kindly, big-hearted man, always ready to respond to every request for help, be it the simple question of a tyro or the difficult problem of a colleague. In his office he would turn from his professional work or from the study of some intricate problem to solve the little personal troubles of a student, and in the field, in the "shadow of a great rock in a thirsty land," after a lunch of coarse camp food washed down with drink from a canteen filled with muddy water, he would slip into an informal lecture, suggested by some chance happening of the day or some new-found specimen, which would have graced in its content the hall of any learned assemblage.

I believe that the "Mark Hopkins and a log" idea of a university was never more nearly realized than in Dr. Williston. His knowledge of men and things was so wide and his acquaintance with many branches of science so intimate that in the heat of a barren fossil field or under the stars at night by the side of a camp fire, some bird, or flower, or fossils, some insect—"one of mine, I named it in 187-odd," he would say—would start a talk that held his little band of student assistants enthralled until hunger, thirst, and sleep were forgotten.

Dr. Williston was very human. He made mistakes, not many relative to the amount of work he did, but a few, and his students sometimes rejoiced a little that they had caught their chief in a rare slip, but there was such quick recognition of error, with acknowledgment and credit given in generous measure where it was due, that it always brought us closer together. There were rare outbursts of good, honest wrath when things or men went wrong. I think some of us may tingle a little even yet, though the happening may have been years ago, but once the trouble was located, be it of weather or roads, or plain stupidity in students, vigorous action or kindly advice set all to rights or taught the philosophy which bears cheerfully what may not be mended.

No man was more generous with the ideas of his own conception, and many a paper by his students or by colleagues is built around a suggestion from Dr. Williston and bears the marks of his careful scrutiny and

criticism, and this is true of papers which would have been an addition to his own fame if he had published them himself.

He taught not only by his lectures and writings; his life was a lesson to all who knew him intimately. The philosophy with which he met misfortunes large and small was as contagious as it was hard-learned in a hard school. In reviewing the life of a successful man we are likely to be attracted by his attainments and to fail to appreciate at their true value the details of drudgery borne and difficulties overcome. If this were the place, and I had the time at my disposal, I could relate a long series of stories told me by himself and his older friends illustrating his early struggles and his tireless industry. Enough to say that he once told me that the lowest stage of his fortunes was reached when as a youth he bailed water in a cofferdam and was discharged for lack of strength to do the work, with no idea where his next meal was to come from. The stages from that experience to this memorial meeting gave him a knowledge of life and a serene faith in the outcome of perseverance and endurance which he passed on, in part unconsciously, to all who came within his influence. One thing he strove to teach his students—that the reward of the work was the result accomplished, that the discovery of truth was greater than any recognition which might come to the successful searcher. Few men have named more new forms of life than he, and yet he cared little for any credit that came to him as the author of a new name. He repeatedly declared to me, "I don't care whether they are named or numbered, just so we know what we are talking about." Few men have attained a greater mastery of their subject or reached a more dominant position in their chosen branch of science, and yet he was singularly free from the touch of dogmatism which frequently, and perhaps excusably, comes in the later years of a master's life. Only a few months before he died he wrote to me in half-comic despair concerning some intricate problem of the morphology of the Permo-Carboniferous vertebrates, "The more we study these things, the more we don't know anything about them."

The effort to reveal to you the man I knew so well is more grateful than the attempt to appraise, as briefly as I must here, the service that he rendered to his favorite branch of science. Others will tell of the value of his work in entomology, his leadership in the Sigma Xi Society, and his inspiration as a colleague; let me say but a few words of his work as a vertebrate paleontologist. A mere catalogue of his discoveries and contributions would mean little to anyone but a specialist, but it means much to all of us that the collections of the National Museum in

Washington and of the museum in Yale University were enriched by his discoveries when he worked as a young man in the fossil fields of Kansas, in the days when his rifle for defense from hostile Indians was never farther from his hand than his pick and shovel. The winters of those years were spent at Yale, and his work there upon the Mosasaurs of the Kansas chalk and the Dinosaurs of the Jurassic was far more than mere preparation of the fossils. The publications of Professor O. C. Marsh contain many of his observations and conclusions, and the quality of his work was recognized by the bestowal of the Ph.D. degree in 1885. For several years he remained at New Haven, serving part of the time as professor of anatomy in Yale University, and in 1891 returned to the state of his boyhood years, now as professor of geology and anatomy in the State University of Kansas. There he again took up the study of the reptiles of the Cretaceous deposits, and the museum of the university shelters treasures of his collecting. His monograph upon the Mosasaurs, published as a report in Kansas University Geological Survey, is the standard reference work upon that group as represented in America. His work upon the Plesiosaurs and Ptersaurs, though not presented in monographic form, is fully as comprehensive and authoritative. During these years he was training his first students in vertebrate paleontology, and their papers, prepared under his guidance, together with his own, make the volumes of the Kansas University Geological Survey the source books on the Cretaceous reptiles and fishes of North America. All this was done while he was fulfilling the duties of professor of geology, and for part of the time those of director of the geological survey, of head of the newly organized medical school of the University, and of state medical officer.

When Dr. Williston joined the Faculty of the University of Chicago a new period began in his activities. A more limited field of work, better facilities, greater leisure, all contributed to the culmination of his career. A small beginning had been made before his coming, in the collection and study of the vertebrate fossils of the Permo-Carboniferous deposits in North America, and he realized at once the possibilities of the field. Active collection began at once and was continued to the time of his death. These collections, made and most skilfully prepared under his direction, have placed in this University an unrivaled assemblage of Permo-Caroniferous fossils, and they will always remain as one of the monuments to his work. Papers appeared in rapid succession from his pen, supplemented by contributions from his students, all resulting in

an enormous increase in our knowledge of the morphology of the group, an orderly taxonomic arrangement of the various forms, and some valuable and far-reaching conclusions in philosophic zoölogy. While it is true that all of his conclusions did not meet with acceptance by workers in the same field in this country and abroad, the points of difference never resulted in personal animosity nor bred anything but the most sincere respect for the honesty of his convictions and the weight of his arguments. To those who followed his lead and to those who differed from him on greater or lesser points he was always the master, to be followed with good faith and trust or to be opposed with deference and a large measure of caution.

In this brief summary I have mentioned only the most important of his contributions, for to attempt a more detailed statement would be to cite papers upon nearly every group of the vertebrates and to recount collecting trips in nearly every fossil field of America and periods of study in every important museum in this country and many abroad. An adequate statement of his work in vertebrate paleontology alone and a just estimate of its value could only be compassed by the limits of a goodly volume.

Facile and pleasing in public address, he was equally apt with pen and pencil. The results of his investigations have been interpreted to the general reader in two volumes from the University of Chicago Press, his *Permian Vertebrates* and his *Water Reptiles of the Past and Present*, both illustrated largely by his own hand. A more comprehensive work upon the class Reptilia, planned as summary of his studies in that class, lies uncompleted. I feel, however, that he would rather have passed with work still in hand than to have waited until his powers were exhausted. He grew weary in his later years, when grief and physical distress fell heavily upon him, and sometimes expressed a wish that he might rest, but he always turned again to the work that was his pleasure, and died with hand and brain still achieving for his chosen branch of science.

And now that I have given such appreciative measure of his work as time permits, my thoughts turn back to him as a teacher and a friend. I cannot think of him as quieted forever; rather let your memory and my memory be of his active, living, helpful personality, of his life as an inspiration that will be felt by many generations of workers. I can voice no better tribute from his students than this: We admired and respected the scientist, we revered the teacher, but we loved the man.

SAMUEL WENDELL WILLISTON

By STUART WELLER, Ph.D.
Professor of Paleontologic Geology

In the passing away of Professor Williston the University has lost an inspiring teacher, science has lost a scholar famed for his research, and the world has lost a man of noble character. Our friend is mourned, not alone by those of us who have been closely associated with him in the University of Chicago, but by his former colleagues in the University of Kansas and in Yale University, and his loss will be deeply felt throughout the whole body of men of science, among whom he held a position of honor and respect.

Professor Williston was a born naturalist, one of those who can not help studying nature. His interests were broad, not being confined to a single small department of research. He attained world-wide fame in two fields as widely apart as vertebrate paleontology and entomology, but his interests were not confined to these subjects alone. He was interested in all of nature, in whatever phase it presented itself to him.

Professor Williston was a life-long advocate of the dignity of research. He believed in research and in the service which all research is destined to render to mankind. His belief in research was not of the selfish sort, justified because he himself delighted in the exercise of his ability in that direction, but it rested on his conviction that every addition to the sum total of human knowledge, however small and insignificant it may seem to be, is an addition to the reserve supply of energy which, when drawn upon, shall serve to further the progress of mankind. He continuously encouraged his students and associates in the belief that whatever they might accomplish in the line of discovery was worth their utmost effort, because it was sure to be utilized in due time in the interest of mankind.

Professor Williston's great interest in research, and especially his interest in bringing the spirit of research into contact with students, was well exhibited in his zeal for the Sigma Xi Society, of which he was national president from 1901 to 1904. He it was who was primarily responsible for the establishment of the Chicago chapter of the society, and to the time of his departure he gave much thought to the development of both the local chapter and the national organization.

As a young man in New Haven, while an assistant to Professor Marsh in the study of fossil vertebrates, Professor Williston was not permitted the opportunity to contribute to the literature of paleontology, but his scientific ardor could not be repressed, and he sought another

field in which his surplus energy might be employed. After a number of trials he selected the two-winged flies as a group of organisms suited to his purpose. The material for study was abundant and was to be had simply by going into the fields and collecting it, and the existing literature was not so extensive as to be beyond the reach of his slender purse. His devotion to the study of the flies, prosecuted wholly during spare moments, soon brought him recognition as a world-authority on the Diptera. His contributions in this field of science have been many, some being of monographic proportions, and his *Manual of Diptera* has probably been the starting-point for as many young entomologists as has any existing work of its sort. Who can say but what the studies of the lowly mosquito, prosecuted by this great man, may have been the real inspiration for those later workers who have done so much in establishing the relations between these insects and human disease? It is certainly true that such work as was done by Professor Williston was essential to the later application of our knowledge of these creatures in the relief of human suffering.

Genuine research, as conducted by such men as Professor Williston, involves the persistence into manhood of that quality of childhood which always asks the question, "Why?" Professor Williston was never satisfied with the mere recording of his observations upon the fossils or insects which he studied. He continually set his mind to answer the question, "Why?" concerning the features which he observed. Every new suture which he discovered in the skulls of the ancient reptiles and amphibians which he knew so well and every modification in their skeletons had to be reasonably interpreted in terms of the evolution of the creatures or in their life-habits before he was satisfied with his work.

As a man of research Professor Williston's outstanding characteristic was his enthusiasm, which was of a most contagious sort. The pleasure which he felt in the discovery of something new he always wished to share with his friends, and he delighted to point out and explain these discoveries even to those who were unfamiliar with the immediate field in which lay his work.

Although the subject which Professor Williston taught was not one which brought him into contact with large numbers of students, no one who came under his influence ever lacked the feeling of obligation to him for what he had received. As a teacher Professor Williston carried the enthusiasm of his research laboratory into his classroom. His lectures were totally devoid of the atmosphere of the professional pedagogue; they were conversational in style, filled with illustrations

from the vast store of his knowledge of nature, every illustration chosen to drive home the facts which he wished to impress upon his hearers. His classroom work was stimulating to the last degree. Because of his wide experience in the field, from the days when the collecting parties in western Kansas had to receive military protection against the Indians, down to the present year, when he spent some time in Texas, he was able to supplement his teaching with innumerable personal experiences, which were always chosen with care and for a purpose, and which added greatly to the interest of his lectures and aided materially in fixing the attention of his students upon points of importance. With his advanced students Professor Williston always established relations of closest companionship. They were commonly given a key to his private office, worked at a desk next his own, and made use of his private library. He was never too busy to drop his work for consultation or advice with students or colleagues, and such consultation was always most cordial and friendly. The humblest Freshman received the same cordial treatment as a colleague, and with one who showed a genuine interest in the subject he never in the least degree begrudged the time spent in answering questions and making explanations outside of the classroom. No student ever came under his influence who did not feel that he had gained through the association. Is it any wonder that a man of such a character should leave as a heritage a great group of disciples who occupy leading positions in science throughout our whole land? Through these men the spirit of Professor Williston will survive and will be transmitted to future generations.

In his personal relations with his fellows Professor Williston was modest in the extreme. He was a most lovable, kindly, and companionable man and enjoyed to the utmost association with congenial spirits. His hearty greeting to former students or to friends who called upon him at the University was delightful to listen to, showing as it did the warmth of his heart and his great loyalty.

The first years of Professor Williston's connection with our own University were discouraging to him because of the lack of materials upon which to prosecute his research work. However, this did not daunt him, and when he could not obtain fossils to work upon he went back to his files and prepared the final, fully illustrated, edition of his *Manual*. For more than a year he devoted his energies to this work and prepared with his own hand some hundreds of illustrations for the book, which became his crowning effort in the field of entomology. He soon began the accumulation of the magnificent collection of Permian

vertebrates which the University now possesses, and the greater portion of his paleontologic research while connected with the University was devoted to these materials. The productivity of his research was amazing when it is remembered that his contributions were of necessity accompanied by large numbers of illustrations, practically all of which were drawn by his own hand. His last work, not quite completed at the time of his death, is a comprehensive treatise on the osteology of the reptiles, living and extinct, very fully illustrated by original drawings. When it is published, the illustrations and other matter in this book will undoubtedly be drawn upon for years to come to furnish materials for textbooks and other similar publications.

The loss to the University and to the community of such a man as Professor Williston is irreparable. Someone will be found in due time to take his place in the classroom, but those of us who have been his close associates will always miss him, and there will always remain in our hearts a vacant spot that can never be filled. But his spirit will live and will manifest itself for generations to come through those who have been in contact with him during life.

THE UNIVERSITY AND THE WAR

THE UNIVERSITY PRESS AND THE WAR

The Press, as one of the divisions of the University, has been especially active in its contributions to war service. The various phases of this war work have included the publication and distribution of War Papers and books bearing on the war, the furnishing of men for national and state military service, the different forms of Red Cross work, and the purchase of bonds in the numerous Liberty Loans.

WAR PAPERS

The widely circulated series of University of Chicago War Papers issued by the Press embraces eight numbers, as follows: (1) *The Threat of German World-Politics*, by Harry Pratt Judson, President of the University; (2) *Americans and the World-Crisis*, by Albion W. Small, Head of the Department of Sociology; (3) *Democracy the Basis for World-Order*, by Frederick D. Bramhall, of the Department of Political Science; (4) *Sixteen Causes of War*, by Andrew C. McLaughlin, Head of the Department of History; (5) *The War and Industrial Readjustments*, by Harold Glenn Moulton, Associate Professor of Political Economy; (6) *England and America*, by Conyers Read, Associate Professor of History; (7) *Democracy and American Schools*, by Charles H. Judd, Director of the Schools of Education; (8) *Democracy and Social Progress in England*, by Edith Abbott, Instructor in Sociology.

These Papers have been issued under the auspices of the Publicity Committee of the University War Service and have been in wide demand by newspapers, schools and colleges, libraries, clubs, the State Council of Defense, Y.M.C.A. organizations, and individuals. They were also used in educational institutions as supplementary reading for war-aims courses. Some idea of the circulation and influence of these Papers may be gained from the following figures:

The first four Papers required a special printing of 25,000 each to be distributed through the State Council of Defense; Paper No. 5, first printed under another title by the Union League Club of Chicago, had a total circulation of nearly 100,000; 155 periodicals in fifteen states used the War Papers in whole or in part, these periodicals having a total circulation of 4,706,200.

BOOKS BEARING ON THE WAR

Among the books published in connection with the war are a number that had a wide use in officers' training camps and the Student Army Training Corps. They include the following:

Army French, by Ernest H. Wilkins, Professor of Romance Languages, University of Chicago, and Algernon Coleman, Associate Professor of Romance Languages, University of Chicago. Five impressions of this book were struck off in the first edition, and the new edition was especially revised to meet the needs of the Student Army Training Corps.

First Lessons in Spoken French for Men in Military Service, by Ernest H. Wilkins, Algernon Coleman, and Howard R. Huse.

First Lessons in Spoken French for Doctors and Nurses, by Ernest H. Wilkins, Algernon Coleman, and Ethel Preston. All royalties received from this book are devoted to the work of the American Red Cross.

Le Soldat Americain en France, by Algernon Coleman, Associate Professor of French, University of Chicago, and Marin La Meslée, Professor of French, Tulane University. A handbook for those who already have some knowledge of French.

Because of two series of volumes which the Press already had under way, one on "Materials for the Study of Economics" and one on "Materials for the Study of Business," it has been possible to cooperate immediately with the editors of the series in issuing two other books in response to the urgent needs of war time—*Readings in the Economics of War*, by

J. Maurice Clark and Harold G. Moulton, of the University of Chicago, and Walton H. Hamilton, of Amherst College; and *Readings in Industrial Society*, by Leon Carroll Marshall, Dean of the School of Commerce and Administration, who is Director of Industrial Relations in the United States Shipping Board of the Emergency Fleet Corporation. The former volume, of 700 pages, interprets the economic aspects of the war and outlines its significance for the future organization of industrial society; while the latter, a volume of over a thousand pages, furnishes a foundation for a thorough understanding and intelligent handling of industrial questions now made so essential by the war.

MEN IN MILITARY SERVICE

As a contribution of the University Press to actual war activities, fifteen of its force are now in war service—seven in France, one in Washington, D.C., and others in various camps. Following is a list of the Press employees who are now in the national military service: Corporal Thure W. Larsen, 247th Aëro Service Squadron, A.E.F.; Private Harry Hannum, 121st Aëro Squadron, A.E.F.; Corporal Elton T. Conley, 328th Aëro Squadron, Supply Headquarters, Kelley Field No. 1, San Antonio, Texas; Nate Feldt, Printing Department, Instruction Bldg., Main Camp, Great Lakes, Ill.; Sergeant Donald P. Bean, Quartermaster's Department, 1266 Columbia Road NW., Washington, D.C.; Corporal Fred H. Sell, Battery E, 122d Field Artillery, A.E.F.; Sergeant Byron P. Rublee, Company K, 343d Infantry, A.E.F.; Second Lieutenant William T. Birch, Company K, 343d Infantry, A.E.F.; Arthur Newton, Armed Guard, U.S.N., City Park Barracks, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Corporal M. F. Baldwin, 37th Engineers, A.E.F.; Private Arthur Drevikovsky, Motor Repair Division, Aëro Squadron C, West Point, Miss.; M. W. Parkinson, Great Lakes, Ill.; Private F. B. Gallagher, 53d Field Artillery, Camp Travis, Texas; Private A. Horawitz, Battery C, 123d Field Artillery, A.E.F.; Paul Laskowsky, Great Lakes, Ill.

Early in the war men from the University Press formed five squads for drilling twice a week on Stagg Field. A number of the men are now members of Company 13, Illinois Reserve Militia, as follows: Corporal F. A. Feller, Sergeant O. C. La Nard, G. C. Crippen, J. E. Replinger, A. A. Green, S. S. Marshall, D. McGowan.

PURCHASE OF LIBERTY BONDS

A remarkable record has been made by the women of the University Press in their subscriptions, often at actual personal sacrifice, to the four issues of Liberty Bonds. The subscriptions have been as follows:

Issue	No. of Women	No. of Bonds	Total Amount
First....	10	11	$ 550.00
Second..	34	35	1,950.00
Third...	38	42	2,150.00
Fourth..	60	75	4,000.00
Total..	.....	163	$8,650.00

In addition to these subscriptions of the women, the men in the University Press have given a very generous response to appeals to purchase Liberty Bonds. Their purchases for the four issues have been as follows:

Issue	No. of Bonds	Total Amount
First.....	14	$ 1,200.00
Second.....	64	4,500.00
Third.....	61	4,300.00
Fourth.....	65	4,500.00
Total.....	204	$14,500.00

The combined purchases, therefore, of Liberty Bonds by men and women of the University Press amount to a total of $23,150.00.

WAR WORK BY WOMEN

To the various phases of the Red Cross work the women of the University Press have devoted much time despite their regular all-day employment at the Press. During the winter of 1916–17 they gave one evening a week at Ida Noyes Hall to sewing for the Red Cross, and during the winter of 1917–18 many were engaged in such work in neighborhood groups. With wool furnished by the Ida Noyes unit, the women of the University Press have already made and sent in thirty-five knitted sweaters and sixty-five pairs

of socks, as well as a dozen other garments. A number of the women also pledged themselves to service in the Woman Student Army Training Corps, and a movement was organized to contribute regularly to the support of one or two orphan children of France. In fact one child has been adopted.

THE UNITED STATES NAVAL RESERVE

The United States Navy in undertaking to build up by the end of 1919 a force of upward of 25,000 line officers for service in the Mercantile Marine of the United States Government established the United States Naval Reserve School, Municipal Pier, Chicago. Last June the Department of Mathematics was approached indirectly by the authorities of the school at the Pier and asked to give at the University naval preparatory courses for men enlisted but not yet called to that school, and naturally welcomed the opportunity to be of use to the country in this way. Accordingly, during the summer four intensive naval preparatory courses were given by the Department, initially of two weeks' and later of three weeks' duration. The work was from three to five hours daily and embraced mathematics, navigation, and nautical astronomy; further, in the later courses instruction was given in signaling, both semaphore and blinker. In all, about 550 men were handled in these courses.

Beginning with the Autumn Quarter the intention was to hold four weeks' courses under the direct auspices of the University. However, at the end of September the authorities of the Pier school made arrangements with the government to take over this preparatory naval work as the first four weeks of the regular work of the Pier school, the men being sworn in to government service, in regular government pay, and under naval discipline. Under the new plan the University is to receive every fortnight a company of 100 men, the normal strength of the University of Chicago Unit thus being two companies, 200 men in all.

During the summer instruction in mathematics, navigation, etc., was given by E. H. Moore, L. E. Dickson, G. A. Bliss, E. J. Wilczynski, J. W. A. Young, R. G. D. Richardson, of Brown University, and W. H. Roever, of Washington University, the last two being members of the Department for the Summer Quarter, and also by Miss Alice Bache Gould, of Boston, Dr. F. D. Murnaghan, of Rice Institute, now of Johns Hopkins University, and Mrs. M. I. Logsdon, of Northwestern University, various graduate students and friends of the Department assisting in the conducting of the large sections, while Quartermaster E. E. Bohrn, of the Pier school, was sent to give instruction in signaling. During the first month of the Autumn Quarter instruction in mathematics, navigation, etc., was given by Miss Gould, now of the Department, and Messrs. E. H. Moore and J. W. A. Young, assisted by Messrs. Horwich, Hacker, Uhlir, and Harvey, detailed by the authorities of the Pier school. The bluejackets were quartered at the Del Prado Hotel in charge of Messrs. Ulrich, Bohrn, Price, and Elder, petty officers detailed by the Pier for this purpose and to give instruction in drill, seamanship, and signaling. Ensign C. W. Schick, enrolling officer of the school at the Pier, reviewed the unit every Saturday morning at 11:30 A.M.

From Professor Anton J. Carlson's commanding officer at Washington Dr. Luckhardt received the following letter November 7, 1918: "We have heard nothing from Carlson himself, but we have a cablegram from Major Street, who was with Carlson, to the effect that he landed in France on October 28. I am supposing that Carlson also landed about that time. Carlson has done remarkably good work, as, of course, we knew he would, and he has been commended by General Ireland in very strong terms. When I first met General Ireland here a couple of weeks ago, he mentioned the excellent work which both Carlson and Shaffer had done in England and France respectively. Carlson's work consisted mainly in tracing down the causes of dissatisfaction or trouble with the rationing of our troops at the rest camps and the aviation squadrons in their training areas throughout England. Carlson found our troops were being subsisted upon a ration which was quite inadequate, and immediately took steps to have it increased in amount and improved in quality. Carlson's work is being commended also in a report which General Gorgas is now writing."

EVENTS: PAST AND FUTURE

THE ONE HUNDRED AND NINTH CONVOCATION

The One Hundred and Ninth Convocation was held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, Tuesday, December 17, at 4:30 P.M. There was no Convocation Orator. The President's Convocation statement was somewhat emphasized.

The award of honors included the election of six students to membership in the Beta of Illinois Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa.

Degrees and titles were conferred as follows: *The Colleges:* the certificate of the College of Education, 5; the degree of Bachelor of Arts, 3; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy, 47; the degree of Bachelor of Science, 21; *The Divinity School:* the degree of Master of Arts, 2; the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 1; *The Law School:* the degree of Bachelor of Laws, 1; the degree of Doctor of Law, 2; *The Graduate School of Arts, Literature, and Science:* the degree of Master of Arts, 4; the degree of Master of Science, 1; the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 7.

GENERAL ITEMS

The University preachers for the winter quarter, 1919, are as follows: January 5, Rev. Charles LeRoy Goodell, St. Paul's M.E. Church, New York; January 12, Dr. Goodell; January 19, Professor Harry Emerson Fosdick, Union Theological Seminary; January 26, Dean William Wallace Fenn, Harvard Divinity School; February 2, Dean Fenn; February 9, Rev. S. Parkes Cadman, Central Congregational Church, Brooklyn, New York; February 16, President W. H. P. Faunce, Brown University; February 23, Professor Hugh Black, Union Theological Seminary; March 2, Professor Black; March 9, Rev. William Coleman Bitting, Second Baptist Church, St. Louis, Mo.; March 16, Convocation Sunday, Rev. John Douglas Adam, Hartford Theological Seminary.

The University preachers for the Spring Quarter, 1919, are as follows: April 6, Professor Albert Parker Fitch, Amherst College, Amherst, Mass.; April 13, to be announced; April 20, Rev. Cornelius Woelfkin, Fifth Avenue Baptist Church, New York; April 27, Dr. Woelfkin; May 4, Professor Harry Emerson Fosdick, Union Theological Seminary, New York; May 11, Dean Charles R. Brown, Yale School of Religion, New Haven, Conn.; May 18, Dean Brown; May 25, Bishop William Fraser McDowell, Washington, D.C.; June 1, Bishop McDowell; June 8, Convocation Sunday, to be announced.

Dr. Ernst Freund, Professor of Jurisprudence and Public Law, has been awarded the Ames prize by the faculty of the Harvard University Law School for his book on *Standards of American Legislation*, recently published by the University of Chicago Press. The Ames prize, named after a former dean of the law school, was established in 1898 by Judge Julian W. Mack, of the United States Circuit Court, who is Professor of Law in the University of Chicago. It consists of a bronze medal and four hundred dollars, and is given every four years to the writer of the most meritorious law book or legal essay written in English. Among the former winners of the prize have been Dean John H. Wigmore, of Northwestern University, and Professor Frederick W. Maitland, of Cambridge University, England.

As director of the University of Chicago Press Mr. Newman Miller, who died on January 8 at the age of forty-seven, was widely known to publishers and educational leaders and writers. Before assuming the directorship in 1900 Mr. Miller, who was a graduate of Albion College, had been secretary of the Correspondence-Study Department in the Extension Division of the University of Chicago and manager of the *Recorder Press* in Albion, Michigan. During Director Miller's nineteen years

of service the University of Chicago Press has been brought to its present position as the largest and best-known university press in the country.

A memorial service for Mr. Miller will be held at the University of Chicago in the present Winter Quarter.

Professor Robert Morss Lovett, of the Department of English, has accepted the editorship of *The Dial*, the offices of which were recently removed from Chicago to New York. Professor Lovett has been connected with the University of Chicago for twenty-five years, coming as an instructor to the Department of English from Harvard University in 1893. He has not severed his connection with the University but will return at the beginning of the Summer Quarter.

"Education and the American Expeditionary Forces" was the subject of an address before the University of Chicago Settlement League on January 21, by Associate Professor Algernon Coleman, of the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures. Professor Coleman has recently returned from Paris, where for eight months he has been executive secretary of the Commission on Educational Work in the American camps in France under the direction of the Y.M.C.A. National War Work Council.

Professor Paul Shorey, Head of the Department of the Greek Language and Literature, gave an address before the art and literature department of the Chicago Woman's Club on January 15 and the University Club on January 18, his subject being "The Spiritual Suicide of Germany." Professor Shorey was the Roosevelt Exchange Professor of History at the University of Berlin in 1913–14. He has recently been elected to membership in the American Academy of Arts and Letters.

Professor Andrew C. McLaughlin, Head of the Department of History, was one of the speakers at the mass meeting in the interest of the League of Nations, held at the Abraham Lincoln Center, Chicago, on the evening of January 12. Professor McLaughlin gave a series of addresses on American democracy in Great Britain during the war, and some of these, together with papers on "British and American Relations," "The Monroe Doctrine," etc., are now announced for publication in book form under the title of *America and Britain*. Professor McLaughlin will be the orator at the One Hundred and Tenth Convocation of the University on March 18, 1919.

Edward Scribner Ames is the author of *The New Orthodoxy*, published by the University of Chicago Press.

Professor George H. Mead, of the Department of Philosophy at the University of Chicago, who is president of the Chicago City Club, was made chairman of a committee of fifty representing ten different organizations for social work, to co-operate with city and federal officers in the suppression of vice in Chicago and its environs.

The latest addition to the series of "Handbooks of Ethics and Religion" published by the University of Chicago Press is *The Life of Paul* by Dr. Benjamin W. Robinson, who is professor of New Testament Literature and Interpretation in the Chicago Theological Seminary.

Professor H. Gideon Wells, of the Department of Pathology, who is also director of the Otho S. A. Sprague Memorial Institute, left Chicago on October 30 for special medical work under the auspices of the Red Cross organization in Roumania and Serbia. Dr. Wells has already spent several months in Roumania on a similar mission.

The mass meeting at the University of Chicago in the interest of the United War Work movement on the evening of November 11 was changed to a general University celebration of victory. Vice-President James R. Angell conducted the meeting, and the singing was led by Daniel Protheroe, leader of the Central Church choir. The speakers included Captain Charles Edward Merriam, Professor of Political Science, who recently returned from six months' service in Italy as head of a commission for the American Committee on Public Information; Rabbi Joseph Stolz, representing the Jewish Welfare Board; Father O'Brien, representing the Knights of Columbus and the National Catholic Council; Mrs. Emma Byers, of the Y.W.C.A.; Major Ripley L. Dana, U.S.A., commanding officer of

the Student Army Training Corps at the University; and Rev. Charles W. Gilkey, of the Hyde Park Baptist Church, Chicago. There were special reserved sections in the hall for the Student Army Training Corps and the Woman Student Training Corps, and great patriotic enthusiasm was manifested throughout the meeting.

Among the recent bulletins issued by the American Judicature Society is one by Dean James Parker Hall, of the University of Chicago Law School, on the subject of *The Selection, Tenure, and Retirement of Judges.*

The University of Chicago Press has published *A History of Suffrage in the United States*, by Kirk Porter.

The Parents' Association of the High School of Oak Park, Illinois, has created a scholarship at the University of Chicago to be used by that student in the Student Army Training Corps who has made the most satisfactory record.

"Democracy in England and the United States" was the subject of the William Vaughn Moody Lecture given at the University of Chicago by Lord Charnwood on December 4. "The Proposed League of Nations as It Affects the British Empire" was the subject of a second lecture by the same speaker on December 5.

Captain Charles Edward Merriam, Professor of Political Science, who was recently Commissioner to Italy for the Committee on Public Information, has announced his candidacy for the mayoralty of Chicago.

Associate Professor S. H. Clark, of the Department of Public Speaking, who recently returned from several months' service in Europe under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A., gave a University war lecture in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall on the evening of November 26, his subject being "Intimate Glimpses of Our Boys in France and Italy."

The twelfth annual convention of the Association of Cosmopolitan Clubs met at the University of Chicago on December 26, 27, and 28. The president of the Association is Ernest Watson Burgess, Assistant Professor of Sociology in the University. The address of welcome for the University was given by Vice-President James R. Angell at a reception in Ida Noyes Hall. The presidential address, on "The Cosmopolitan Movement and the 'New Epoch,'" was given in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall by Professor Burgess, and on the same evening two other addresses were given by members of the University of Chicago Faculty —one by Dean Shailer Mathews, of the Divinity School, on "The Hope of World-Reconstruction," and one by Professor Thomas C. Chamberlin, on "The Omninational Organization for Permanent Peace," a subject on which he has contributed a notable article to the December *Journal of Geology*. Other sessions were held at Hull-House and the City Club of Chicago. At the convention banquet in the Hotel del Prado Frederick Starr, Associate Professor of Anthropology in the University of Chicago, spoke on the subject of "The World's Center."

Professor John Merle Coulter, Head of the Department of Botany, is president of the American Association of University Professors, which met with the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Baltimore on December 28. Professor Coulter is also president of the latter association.

The death of George Burman Foster, Professor of the Philosophy of Religion in the University of Chicago, occurred in St. Luke's Hospital, Chicago, on December 22.

A memorial service for Professor Foster will be held in the Winter Quarter.

ATTENDANCE IN AUTUMN QUARTER, 1918

	1918			1917			Gain	Loss
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total		
I. The Departments of Arts, Literature, and Science:								
1. The Graduate Schools—								
Arts and Literature	67	127	194	209	156	365	.....	171
Science	100	67	167	176	71	247	.....	80
S.A.T.C.	15	.....	15	.....	.....	.....	15	.....
Total	182	194	376	385	227	612	.....	236
2. The Colleges—								
Senior	141	341	482	327	347	674	.....	192
Junior	230	509	739	596	494	1,090	.....	351
Unclassified	22	54	76	133	49	182	.....	106
S.A.T.C.	1,006	.....	1,006	.....	.....	.....	1,006	.....
Total	1,399	904	2,303	1,056	890	1,946	357	.....
Total Arts, Literature, and Science	1,581	1,098	2,679	1,441	1,117	2,558	121	.....
II. The Professional Schools:								
1 Divinity School—			(3 dup.)			(2 dup.)		
Graduate	59	7	66	108	12	120	.....	.....
Unclassified	21	4	25	13	3	16	.....	.....
English Theological	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chicago Theological	21	.....	21	28	2	30	.....	.....
Total	101	11	112	149	17	166	.....	54
*2. The Courses in Medicine—								
Graduate	50	11	61	68	10	78	.....	.....
Senior	117	6	123	93	6	99	.....	.....
Junior	3	.....	3	18	.....	18	.....	.....
Unclassified	3	.....	3	3	.....	3	.....	.....
Total	173	17	190	182	16	198	.....	8
3. The Law School—								
Graduate	19	7	26	61	8	69	.....	.....
*Senior	5	3	8	43	2	45	.....	.....
Candidates for LL.B.	8	3	11	36	4	40	.....	.....
Unclassified	.....	1	1	2	1	3	.....	.....
Total	32	14	46	142	15	157	.....	111
4. The College of Education	9	206	215	8	302	310	.....	95
5. The College of Commerce and Administration	67	85	152	147	77	224	.....	72
Total Professional	382	333	715	628	427	1,055	.....	340
Total University	1,963	1,431	3,394	2,069	1,544	3,613	.....	219
*Deduct for Duplications	181	20	201	227	18	245	.....	.....
Net totals	1,782	1,411	3,193	1,842	1,526	3,368	.....	175

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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

(New Series)

APRIL 1919

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EDITOR

DAVID ALLAN ROBERTSON

Vol. V

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CHARLES JEROLD HULL

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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

VOLUME V APRIL 1919 NUMBER 2

THE IMPLICATIONS OF DEMOCRACY[1]

BY ANDREW CUNNINGHAM McLAUGHLIN
Professor and Head of the Department of History

To speak on democracy requires some courage or at least audacity if the speaker expects to say anything new. And yet, though numberless essays have been written and countless harangues have been perpetrated, the topic will not down. Today it stands before us as the one subject of transcendental importance; the world has put on the trappings of democracy and has perhaps accepted its philosophy. A war has been waged with the strength of millions to make democracy safe and to crush the fell spirit of autocratic militarism. Young men by the hundred thousand lie in Flanders fields or in the rugged ravines of the Argonne, mute martyrs for the cause of democratic justice. We cannot on such an occasion as this pass along unmindful of the sacrifice, heedless of the significance of the great conflict which took young men from college halls to offer themselves freely, gladly, not alone to shield us from physical danger, but to save for us and our children's children a principle and an inspiration. They died that democracy as a principle of life might be saved and given new vitality, new reality, and new spirit. If we are to take the torch from their fallen hands, we must hold it high for the cause they fell for; its light ought not to be obscured by darkened counsels or by blind unmindfulness.

I speak of a rejuvenated and newly inspired democracy, because, if we have seen democracy at its full stature, we may question its vitality. If we have faith in continuous enlargement, we may have confidence in its permanence, we may be sure that it was something worth dying for,

[1] Delivered on the occasion of the One Hundred and Tenth Convocation of the University held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, March 18, 1919.

and, what is more, something worth living for. And after all that is the great human question; if men died for it, will the rest of us live for it?

No quality or condition of life is permanent; there must come change. We now are wondering, however, whether in our effort to secure what we thought most essential we have been swept on by a tide of human passions, which has deposited us at the feet of a new despotism, which disregards the old restraint of the democratic state and the democratic society. It almost seems as if all civilization were suffering from shell shock, beset by dangers of aberration and psychical derangement. Under the old name and with new watchwords are men to fashion a new tyranny or is there to come a refreshment of the spirit and enlargement of freedom? I am not going to speak to you of Bolshevism as a creed or a practice; I wish only to remind you at the beginning that not even democracy can stand still, and to present the possibility that it faces a new peril. Moreover it would be possible to show from history, I think, that as soon as men are quite conscious of a condition or have reached the fruition of their hopes, that condition is already crumbling, possibly shattered by the forces released to safeguard it. If democracy after its struggle for self-preservation is quite content, then it is no longer quite alive; it may go down before new vitalities. An embalmed democracy deserves burial.

Let us now accept as sound the antithesis between autocracy and democracy, and, to understand what we fought for, let us first understand what we fought against. To analyze democracy is no easy task because it is alive; to vivisect democracy is harder than to hold an autopsy on autocracy.

An autocratic government is one recognizing no authority beyond itself; it acknowledges no responsibility to externals. Its power is spontaneous, intrinsic, or inherent. Its main reliance, its main resting place, is force. There may be no need of continuous display of power; but the nature of the institution demands the self-will of the autocrat and the obedience of the subject. It is the duty of an autocrat not to carry out the will of others, but to bend all the rest to his will; if he does not, he ceases to be autocratic. Necessarily, the state and the government are one; Louis XIV was quite right when he said "L'état c'est moi!"; he was the possessor of sovereignty, and sovereignty is the peculiar possession of the state.

Autocracy requires segregation for safety. If there is a divinity which doth hedge a king, the hedges must be scrupulously maintained. If no man is great to his valet, everything must be done to shut out the

vulgar from the sacred presence of the would-be great. Accessibility may be an amiable quality in a king, but it endangers his character as an autocrat; he must be kept apart from the conflicting and modifying currents of life. I do not maintain that all autocrats have been personally inaccessible; but to the extent that they practice accessibility or feel the pull of anything outside themselves they cease to be really and primarily autocratic.

This need of segregation or aloofness rests in part on the assumption of superiority. No autocrat doubting his own wisdom would be more than a whited sepulcher, though I admit he might still be a ravening wolf. Any recognition by an autocratic monarch or an autocratic aristocracy that they can be helped by the opinion of others undermines their fortress. They are of bluer blood and of finer clay. To strengthen this position of authority they call upon God as the source of their peculiar superiority. Because of this superiority they must cut themselves off from surrounding life. This of course begets a degree of insanity, for only by human contacts can one remain psychologically wholesome.

Autocracy leans upon deceit. The autocrat need not always be deceitful; but when the lion's skin runs short he will "eke it out with the fox's." He has no duty but to serve himself. To deceive the multitude can be no sin if he helps himself to greater security. And if active deceit is not always needful, secrecy is the inevitable companion of superiority and aloofness. So closely allied are stealth and secrecy that it requires the microscope of the practiced casuist to distinguish one from the other, and both are the parents of intrigue.

To this sum of the virtues of autocracy should be added cruelty; not perhaps a quality necessarily indulged in. But how is one to judge of cruelty? If one maintains aloofness and superiority, how can one know how his acts torture the common man? No one can retain human compassion by shutting himself off from human sympathy. Sympathy is certainly denied the autocrat, because it means fellow-feeling, and there are no fellows; all are his underlings.

I have not been contending that any person was ever a perfect autocrat; it would probably not be hard to point out almost perfectly functioning autocratic aristocracies. But that is neither here nor there. My main contention is that there was a nature in this thing we are dissecting, there was a logic in its life. It is living up to the philosophy of its own being, living up to the impulses of its own life, when it lives up to irresponsibility—irresponsibility to external compulsion, be it

legal, moral, or spiritual. No human organization has as such a higher law than the law of self-preservation and self-expression, and the law of autocracy must be that of self-consideration and that alone. To the extent that it considers others it invalidates itself.

When Mr. Wilson called America to arms, bidding us fight against autocracy, we thought at first, as possibly he did, of the enormities and cruel wilfulness of autocratic government. We were justified in so thinking; the Kaiser and the men surrounding him displayed to the world various obvious perils in a government whose chieftain spoke of himself as the commander of an armed nation and as one relying on the strong arm of a Teutonic God. But we soon saw more than this; we saw Germany as an organized nation in arms playing the rôle of the autocrat among the nations of the world. We saw her practicing irresponsibility, laying international law aside, using brute force to get her way, trampling upon her inferiors, indulging in intrigue, using frightfulness as a weapon. She could not acknowledge the binding character of moral obligation, she could not accept the common opinion of the world without recognizing external authority, something above her own self-will. No nation that opposed her plans merited pity, for her highest duty was to herself. She was typically, logically, adequately autocratic.

No nation can adopt a form and principle of government and placidly acquiesce in it, without tolerating, probably admiring, the philosophy on which such government rests. The character of a people is bound to show itself more or less fully in the scheme of political order with which it is content. But, generalization aside, no one can doubt the symmetry of the Teutonic organization. Germany was self-willed, Germany was superior, Germany relied on force, Germany would not permit the crudities of outside civilization to mar her own *Kultur*, Germany must be dominant, not co-operative. When Grey asked the German foreign office in 1914 to confer and discuss, and not to plunge recklessly into war, the request was pushed haughtily aside. It is not consistent with the self-will of a superior being to indulge in conversations. The outside world today, not as yet recovered from its amazement and its indignation, is questioning whether Germany ever will be in a condition of mind fitting it to act in a harmonious, friendly, and companionable way with other nations. And thus we see it was a state of mind the world fought against, the autocratic state of mind—aloofness which begat peculiarity and obliquity—a dehumanizing because an uncompanionable state of mind. An Englishman said not long ago that the "primary fault of Germany was ingrained determination not to permit a free meeting of

minds between people and people." How could a nation permeated by the philosophy of autocracy permit free, open, cordial interchange of opinion, the building up of a community of sentiment or judgment?

If now we have performed this hurried autopsy, we may take up the vivisection. And yet, perhaps, it is quite unnecessary. For democracy is just the opposite of all these things, and if it be intent on self-preservation, on living up to the logic of its own being, it will shun the whole philosophy of autocracy as it would the plague.

In a democracy the masses of the people are supposed to participate in their own government. What is called the government is the creature and agent of the state. This government has no inherent power, nothing intrinsically its own. The center of its character is responsibility to the main body of the people. All authority is a trust. The justification of democracy as a form of government is that it is natural, not artificial; governmental action is supposed to conform, and in a perfect democracy will conform to the wishes of the people. It is not necessary to assume that men always choose aright, but only that they strive to satisfy natural desires.

Democratic government is responsive government. Whether men always choose correctly or know their own needs better than a selected few can tell them is not now the question. Democracy's justification of itself is that it is natural and that there are tides of human impulse sweeping through the masses of men, instinctive longings and cravings to which government must respond. No extraneous, superimposed, semidetached government, above all not one tainted with irresponsibility, can be sensitive to the developing needs of mankind.

I shall not however longer dwell upon democracy merely as a form of government. No one can speak for a moment of political machinery without finding himself beginning to wander into life beyond the borders of mere mechanism. So closely associated are the assumptions of political democracy with the activities and spirit of everyday life, so intimate are political forms, if they be more than form, in their reactions on daily conduct, that it is almost impossible to distinguish the character of the people from the nature of its government. It is a simple truism to assert that only a democratic people can establish and manage a democratic government; and the reverse is also true: that a thoroughly democratic government demands for its own preservation the practices and living principles of democratic society. So all-permeating is a principle of political organization, or so single are the thoughts of men, that the logic of a political system affects ethical conceptions, social

relationships, ecclesiastical organization, and theological tenets. Modern theology, for example, is the theology of democratic brotherhood coupled with freedom of the individual striving to make his own active God, just as the founders of Puritanism established their church on contract, elaborated a contractual political philosophy, and bound Almighty God by his own constitutional covenants.

As democratic government is responsible government, acknowledging that power and authority rest on consent and agreement, so it inculcates the sense of responsibility in every member of the state. Unless the individual, recognizing the ethical principle upon which the theory of the state rests, is prepared to shoulder his burden and do his part, that theory remains a theory. It is of course naturally a matter of degree; but nothing less than complete and full response to obligations is consistent with the existence of thoroughly popular government. Here we reach another justification of the democratic system. It suggests responsibility in each individual, and not only the need of doing for himself, but of living for others. The autocratic state normally suggests that men must trust to superiors; democracy implies self-reliance and social obligation. If the philosophy of the popular state actually stimulates this feeling of obligation, this duty to act and to live in social order, then the state by its very nature, by the logic of its being, by the necessity of self-realization, awakens the most fundamental of human virtues. Irresponsibility is the most dangerous, the most corroding and poisonous of sins. It is the basis of crime and social decomposition. In the political order, not to vote is a sin against the holy ghost of democracy.

Democracy rests on faith. It confides in the fundamental validity of human nature. It believes that men can be trusted, and, while they may fall into error, they will naturally on the whole seek out the good. Its philosophy is, therefore, the philosophy of optimism; and it is perfectly natural that it should have arisen in its modern form in America, where men are perhaps optimistic because they are democratic, but certainly are democratic because they are optimistic. Once again we find ourselves in the realm of ethics and even theology. It was inevitable that modern American democracy should have its rise in the mind and heart of a Virginian who had broken away from the old-fashioned views of theology and religion, and looked upon the creator of the universe as a father who was interested in the lives of his children, rather than as a judge who was intent upon condemning them to everlasting fire. Until 130 or 140 years ago, men were accustomed to look backward to the "Golden Age"; but with the coming in of a democratic spirit and

democratic institutions, and especially with their development and unfolding, there came a realization that the Golden Age might be reached as a result of human endeavor, as men came to have confidence in themselves and in their fellows. If we should once reject the belief that men can be trusted, if we should lose our faith, we should lose our impulse for betterment; one of the most helpful, perhaps the most stimulating, element in American life would disappear behind the clouds of doubt or despair. The one thought we always have, even when not wholly conscious of it, is that men are capable of progress and that the future surely contains within itself a higher and better order of things than we now see about us. In all that we do, we are inspired by the belief that little by little, step by step, men are lifting themselves to a higher stage of civilization and to a higher plane of character. The autocratic or oligarchic state, by the very logic of its being, loses the inspiration that comes from faith. Faith and autocracy are enemies, and the very system of the state suggests content with a static condition, not to say despair, rather than movement toward a better and brighter future.

If we speak more simply and in the terms of practical politics, this faith foundation of the democratic state means that on the whole there is no surer criterion for what is wise in political action than the judgment of the main body of the people. If there is no such faith, then democracy of the popular state is a hollow sham. This does not mean that men are perfect in the mass, for they cannot well be inasmuch as they are not individually perfect. It simply means that the judgments of the whole are likely in the long run to be the surest guides as to what is best for the whole. As faith in the quality of the masses of men is an inspiration to each one of us individually and affects our temperament in all matters of social life, so the faith which is reposed in the individual man helps to make him more worthy of confidence. If one believes that other men have no faith in him, he must almost surely lose faith in himself.

"Was there not," says Morely, "a profound and far-reaching truth wrapped up in Goethe's simple yet really inexhaustible monition, that if we would improve a man, it would be well to let him believe that we already think him that which we would have him to be."[1]

Democracy has been called the hope of the world. It is hope. As Jefferson said, men have the natural right to "pursue happiness." Unhopeful democracy does not amount to anything. If it does not aid in the development and improvement of human beings, there is no reason

[1] "Essay on Carlyle," *Miscellanies*, Vol. I., p. 192.

why we should take a consuming interest in its success or failure. This belief in progress was the foundation-thought of Jeffersonian democracy —that men relieved from the burdens of an expensive and elaborate government, given the opportunities of the free and open continent of America, would, under natural processes, rise to a higher stage of existence, and decade by decade, or rather century by century, work out a more glorious destiny. Henry Adams pictured Jefferson as saying to himself: "If fifty years hence the average man shall invariably argue from two ascertained premises where he now jumps to a conclusion from a single supposed revelation—that is progress! I expect it to be made here, under our democratic stimulants, on a great scale, until every man is potentially an athlete in body and an Aristotle in mind." In speaking of the characteristic optimism of the Americans of one hundred years ago and more, Adams said:

> If the priests and barons who set their names to Magna Charta had been told that in a few centuries every swine-herd and cobbler's apprentice would write and read with an ease such as few kings could then command, and reason with a better logic than any university could then practice, the priests and barons would have been much more incredulous than any man who was told in 1800 that within another five centuries the plough-boy would go a-field whistling a sonata of Beethoven and figure out in quaternions the relation of his furrows.

This recognition that faith is our soul's salvation, is the cause of our anxiety in these passing days—not that we fear for our property, not that we are afraid of national discomfiture, not that we stand sponsor for any given international or even for any particular economic system—but that we fear for the philosophy of our daily life, fear that we may be robbed of our faith, fear that we may stand naked and unarmed in the presence of facts appearing to demonstrate that men are not sufficiently wise, generous, magnanimous, and self-restrained to move steadily forward toward the goal of their own greater good.

Democracy rests upon education. Of course it is conceivable that in a perfectly simple state with narrow limits you might have democracy without very much intelligence, but in the complexity of modern life it is utterly impossible to carry forward the affairs of popular government without wide and sound education. We sometimes wonder, not so much whether men are morally capable of living up to their responsibilities, as whether the human intellect is capable of actually solving the problems of modern life and managing public affairs for the common good. Society has become so intricate, there are so many interrelations and interdependencies, that we are sometimes staggered at the very

prospect and shrink from the attempt to find intellectual solutions for our problems.

Because of some vague appreciation of these responsibilities of popular government, the American people have always taken a lively interest in schools and colleges. There has appeared at times to be even a strange contradiction between the unstinted force of the whole educational system and the attitude of mind, or what seemed to be the attitude of mind, of the average American. Certainly until a short time ago the average business man and the great body of persons who had not themselves received college education were inclined to depreciate the value of any form of study which would not give immediate practical assistance in the business of making a living. The educated man was looked upon as quite a superfluity in public affairs; and the theorist and even the expert were considered abnormalities. The early life on the frontier, leading men to think that the greatest achievement was to overcome the tangible and most immediate obstacles of nature, prompted them to look almost with disfavor on anything that was not adapted to the winning of the wilderness. And yet in spite of this, hardly were these western settlements made, hardly, as Tyler says of the early New Englanders, were the stumps brown in their earliest harvest field, or had the wolves ceased to howl about their nightly habitations, when they determined to found schools and colleges and give their children the opportunity of education. The reason for this inconsistency, if such it were, is to be found partly in this unconscious realization that democracy depends upon an intelligent public, and partly, no doubt, on the fact that democracy is forward-looking, and if the early American had no ancestors, he had at least posterity. If he had no past, the future belonged to himself and above all to his children.

But when I have said that democracy rests on education, and prompts wealthy men to endow schools and colleges and leads the public to pour out its money in educational undertakings, I have been dwelling only on education in the very formal, though more ordinary sense of the word. The more important truth is that democracy is itself educating. The duties to which men are called, the matters which each individual man is asked to consider, in themselves demand thought. Any social or political system which asks the individual man to think is in the highest degree educating. We, as collegians, probably believe that the human race will move forward by men learning to think and to think correctly. If men cannot learn to think and to think correctly, there is little if any hope for developing humanity. Democracy, therefore, has its chiefest

justification in that it suggests, or, as I have said, actually requires thought. In recent years we have been somewhat disturbed by the apparent contradiction between democracy and efficiency. It is sometimes said that democracy is naturally wasteful and heedless, and does not pass laws or execute them with the care, judgment, or precision found under an autocratic system. If we should appraise a political system by the cleverness of its legal adjustments, by the precision and adroitness with which its laws are prepared and enforced, or even by their actual adaptation to the more evident needs of society at a given moment, we might well think that some government of superior beings, if they could be found, might deserve more confidence than the populace. But as a matter of fact we cannot accept that criterion. We must measure democracy by men, not by legislation. It is far better that men should do things for themselves than that others should do things for them, even though others might succeed in doing those things better. Progress must come from human effort, and above all from the effort to think. "In the free state," said the French philosopher, Montesquieu, "it does not make so very much difference whether men think things out correctly or incorrectly. The important thing is that they think at all."

At times in the course of heated elections, when complicated questions of state are involved, we doubt whether the untrained public is capable of understanding the actual issues. The truth simply is that in a free state it does not make such a tremendous amount of difference whether a question is thought out correctly or not, if men by their responsibilities are tempted to think about things which otherwise they would have no thought about. There is no great elevating effect to be derived from thinking on subjects that are quite easily comprehended. The educational and uplifting force comes from reaching out for ideas and logical principles just a little bit beyond our reach; and it is this reaching, this effort to do what one has not done before, this attempt to grasp what is perhaps unattainable, that is most desirable. It is better that men should reach and fail to grasp than never to have reached at all.

Democracy is fundamentally a matter of human relationships. I have been contending that possibly its chiefest value resulted from its necessary reactions upon the individual man. But democracy as we have come to conceive it is not an individual thing at all. Individualism and democracy are hostile one to the other; for individualism means irresponsibility, self-will, detachment. And still democracy demands freedom; it cannot survive, it does not exist, under the weight of superimposed burdens as distinguished from self-imposed. Democracy without

duties is either anarchical or dead. There are two kinds of morality in the world and only two; and one of them is not morality. Obedience in response to externally applied compulsion need not be termed a virtue; though at times it is needed to restrain the criminal-minded man or the criminal-minded state, obedience is necessitated by immorality. Only internal compulsion, or obedience to one's own inner sense of obligation, is real morality. Now elementally such is the ethics of the democratic state. It calls on men to assume burdens, to compel themselves, to act rightly and justly because they believe in right and justice.

There is a perilous notion abroad in the land that we should imitate Germany and rear passive obedience to external order into exalted virtue, and that by discipline, training, command, we should create character. This is all at variance with democratic philosophy and with the philosophy of our educational system. Modern education has thriven and justified itself by seeking to release faculties, to develop self-command, to awaken self-reliance, to establish responsibility to unimprison the real self of the pupil. Our educational system and philosophy have been justified in the crisis. The young men from our college halls flocking unbidden to officers' training camps showed intellectual keenness and eagerness; they showed power in analyzing problems, showed readiness to assume unwonted duties of command because they had been led by freedom of college life and college teaching to command themselves. It is no exaggeration to say that this capacity for responsible leadership amazed the world and filled us with merited pride. In the terrible battles on the Meuse and in the Argonne, young fellows but a year or two out of college, working over an unknown terrain, leading a body of unskilled men, their superior officers sick or wounded or dead, carried the burdens of terrifying responsibility with a calm and courageous strength which is one of the soul-stirring facts of the war.

This, I maintain, was the outstanding lesson of the war. The German soldier doubtless had a consuming, almost a fanatical love of his race and his fatherland, and I would not rob the fallen soldiers of their meed of praise, if it is needed, for their readiness to sacrifice. But to my mind the great inspiring sight was the rise of free peoples to struggle unbidden for justice, their readiness to offer their lives for uncompelled duty. And possibly the most wholesome and uplifting sight of all was the way in which the free peoples of the free British empire—in Australia, New Zealand, Canada, South Africa—nations nourished in freedom, rose almost to a man to perform prodigies of valor on the fields

of death. For it gave us new assurance that empires could be reared on freedom and that men would not cravenly steal to safety behind the curtain of irresponsibility. The boys, too, that went from these halls and other college halls openly, frankly, welcoming danger, welcoming it with the pathetic high-heartedness that wrung our own souls, proved to us, if proof were needed, the compelling power of duty. You may lament that we were so slow; you may complain because we did not go into the war sooner; you may believe that delay was in the long run wasteful of life; but as for me, I know of no more inspiring fact in history than the calm, though slow, deliberation of a hundred million people making up their own minds to do what they believed ought to be done. If, as Thiers once said, a free state is a moral being that thinks before it acts, America was a free state; it was not under the bondage of sudden passion or hatred or fear, not the victim even of blind nationalistic patriotism, but only the slave of meditation and self-imposed obligation. Half the virtue of our conduct, half the value of our lesson to a desperate world, would have been lost if we had plunged ahead with battle-mad passion for revenge or reparation.

Freedom begets responsibility; freedom creates duties; freedom binds men together in fellowship. This is only one of those paradoxes of which human life is full. The student of the philosophy of society knows that society flourishes on mutually supporting contradictions. So democracy, calling upon the individual to live and act, is at war with irresponsible individualism. One of our colleagues, with a wit suited to Sydney Smith or a regenerated Voltaire, once defined an afternoon reception as a clever social device for giving the least possible pleasure to the largest possible number. I may stop to say that even the afternoon-reception variety of democracy is at least as praiseworthy as the more decorous and not less formal autocracy. For if democracy *at its worst* is but an uncomfortable and perhaps uncomforting elbowing and pushing for the ices and cakes, resulting in the least possible gratification to the multitude, autocracy *at its best*, that is, acting most wholeheartedly in response to the law of its own being, seeks to give the greatest possible pleasure to the smallest possible number.

But the afternoon reception does not typify real democracy, for democracy connotes co-operation and relationships. Individualism is the result of disintegration; its motive is detachment. Democracy is association. You cannot take a man out into the wilderness and leave him with the admonition that he be a good democrat. Democracy requires companionship, and it lives and flourishes on interchange; if it

is alive, it is nourished by companionability. Without contacts, nay without wholeness, without social solidarity, it is only partly itself. If a neighborhood, a nation, a college, is divided into groups that are self-willed, self-seeking, uncommunicative, it is not democratic—for mere poverty or mere simplicity or mere unsophistication, though often called the elements of democracy, are not so at all. You cannot have—need I say it? you cannot have popular government, popular determination; you cannot have popular anything, without a populace which feels itself a whole.

I have not touched on the vexed question of social equality or indeed on equality at all. I am not sure that in the future, if democracy ever reaches perfection, equality will be considered an essential attribute. There is no equality in nature, and an artificially imposed equality can scarcely be called democratic. The whole subject is so full of perplexing and alluring difficulties that I should need another hour to discuss them; and that discussion you must be spared. Some things however are obvious. Democracy, as we have known it, has meant progress and opportunity, not an unvarying dead-level achievement; it has rested on thrift and enterprise and individual judgment and energy; it has given or allowed its rewards, doubtless over-lavishly, to shrewdness and individual skill. But a society which does not prompt men to move and to exert themselves can scarcely survive. Equality before the law we all acknowledge as a necessity, and if it is not a reality it must be made so, a real equality before the bar of justice.

Almost from the beginning in America, and most notably since men began to pour in eager armies through the passes of the Appalachians to seize upon the lands of the Mississippi basin and to develop its resources, success has been the outstanding word in American civilization. Every schoolboy was urged to win success in life, and generally the thought was of pecuniary success. It is symptomatic of recent America that that word no longer holds its dominating position, and, if it is used, connotes something new. The winning of a great fortune is not now looked upon as the only success in life, if it be success at all; and the holders of vast wealth are judged by others and they judge themselves by the skill and wisdom and public spirit with which they give their money away. We do not know how far this attitude toward the amassing of fortunes will develop in the days to come, or how far men should be deterred or restrained in their efforts to make and control money and more money. And I think we do not need to know. We do know that society lives and is changing before our eyes and that there is a deepening sense of

social responsibility in the minds of the fortunate and the prosperous. After all is said, responsibility is the word and the spirit which separates democracy from its antagonist, its essential enemy, autocracy. Autocracy is selfishness, superheated self-will, ingrained indulgent individualism. Democracy cannot be self-centered, grasping, secluded, exclusive, repelling. Doubtless we are entering upon a stage different from that created by the frontier life of the American people, and service is supplanting success. It is moreover not alone the rich that must cherish responsibility; but the poor as well. Or, if we can reasonably hope for the disappearance of real poverty, as we must and may hope, the less fortunate and the less gifted must bear their share of obligation to the state, to themselves, and to their neighbors.

I have no doubt that industry must be democratized and that the process is going on. But unless we have passed on to a stage of mere negation, such democratization does not involve the destruction of expert guidance or the denial of appropriate pecuniary reward; it does not involve domination by the ignorant and the incapable, or the benumbing of individual initiative. It does mean probably a widening of companionship, a strengthening of responsibility, a humanizing and liberalizing of authority, a deepening of duty, a banishing of unintelligent enmity. It does mean, this process of democratization, an integrating process, a wholesomizing process, based on a sense of individual self-respect and social esteem. Unless the past has led us quite astray, these are the natural products of a developing humanity under the inspiriting suggestions of a political system which decries wilfulness.

The industrial revolution began only about one hundred and fifty years ago; it has shown its effects clearly only through the past seventy-five years. Only during the past one hundred and fifty years has modern inductive science been applied to mechanical invention and wrought the marvelous change in habit, environment, and necessities of men. Taken all in all, this was probably the greatest transformation suffered by the human race, since man first learned to make fire. Indeed the change from tools to machinery and above all from tools to machinery driven by non-human power, may be considered almost as momentous as the change from the unaided human hand and claw to tools. Count this gross exaggeration, if you wish; but you still will see it is nothing but sheer folly to suppose that the industrial organization of society is to find a quasi-permanent, human, and satisfying form in a few decades after the revolution has shown its results. Ultimately, doubtless, society will be stabilized; but it will not be today or tomorrow. The most we have

the right to demand and expect is that the social rearrangements will be brought on by reasonable adjustment, not by autocratic brute force, that the philosophy and spirit of democracy will enable men to work out results by agreements and accommodations and intelligent consent.

Publicity is the weapon of democracy. Not only is secrecy a source of danger, but it is in itself incompatible with popular government. How, pray, can people have opinions about things they know nothing of? And if there is no opinion, how can popular government exist at all? The openness of democratic life sometimes seems to militate against privacy, not to say secrecy. To the inquisitive onlooker we appear to direct our political affairs by mandates issued at elections; but we don't. We govern chiefly by public opinion, and if congressmen at times appear to insulate themselves from the *vulgus* and not to know what people are thinking, we are justly indignant. A democratic government cannot be an insulated government, cut off from the currents of life for two- or four-year periods, although men at Washington often appear to think so. As publicity is an absolute essential, stealth and intrigue are impossible derivatives from democratic philosophy. I do not mean they do not exist. I mean that they are vices gnawing at the heart of the democratic state; they are the weapons of a mean autocracy.

There is now on foot a movement for Americanizing the immigrant. Plans are laid for inculcating certain knowledge, extending the use of the English language, and developing a spirit of patriotism. Often, it seems to me, the motive of this effort is not quite clear. Is it based on some fear? Must we believe that men must be given, if only by forcible inoculation, a readiness to fight for the flag? Is it based on the assumption that we have our own *Kultur*, high above all other brands, which must be accepted if civilization be secure? If so, I am not confident of the justice, the wisdom, or the moral effects of the effort. But I am confident that social integration must be secured, if democracy survive; disintegration, intellectual separateness, differences of moral reactions on fundamental problems of living, are unsocializing and hence inconsistent with community life and action. There must be understanding, freedom of intercourse, interchange of ideas between man and man, or there can be no creation of a common purpose. The flag, which we may all ignorantly worship, must be the symbol, not of a pugnacious patriotism, but of the common possession of a common ideal. Democracy without community in things of the spirit is gross, material, and nevertheless unreal. America is safe as a democratic reality if there

is a wide and deep devotion to a code of daily morality; if there is no commonness, waving the flag is of little value.

For this reason too we insist now on the use of the English language, not because it is better than others, not because we fear that the civilization it may carry with it is imperiled, not because of any mean nationalistic pride or envy or trepidation or enmity, but once again because communication and the creation of a public opinion which is the basis of free popular government are necessary if we would maintain and build up the thing our boys died for, the thing the masses of the plain people are praying for. The old saying, "divide and rule," was the watchword of many an autocratic system; we have the right to say to people of the would-be popular state, "unite and rule"; you cannot possess your own government unless you as a whole people possess yourselves.

We sometimes hear that democratic government is government by the majority; but that is a deceitful half-truth. Or we hear that a minority has certain rights and immunities beyond the reach of the majority, which in this country is restrained by constitutional prohibitions. Neither one of these assertions expresses the philosophic content of democracy. In a free state the majority, by the nature of the state, has no right to legislate for itself alone. Fifty-one have no inherent authority to bully forty-nine; that would be only autocracy on a large and unwholesome scale. Democracy rests on duty, not on privilege, and that is the lesson for both minorities and majorities. The notion that we live in the presence of a persistent dualism of majorities and minorities and that the minorities have a shield and buckler protecting them from molestation may be partly true in fact; but it belies the spirit of democracy if not of ever-changing life; it is in part a relic of the half-democracy of the eighteenth century and of the principle of an unchanging natural law that cannot be moved one jot or one tittle. By the implications of a real democracy, minorities and individuals should be protected by the principle of freedom, by the duty of majorities to be responsible for others and not self-seeking, by the duty of minorities to accommodate themselves to public needs.

The simple truth is that the truly popular state cannot be based on dualism, on continuous friction between fifty-one and forty-nine, on authority backed by protected privilege, or on unreasoning power supported by majority strength. Need I repeat again that democratic government rests upon agreement; that is, upon processes through which men come to common understanding? Life is not rigid; it is a series of adjustments and accommodations. A real democracy is constant

rearrangement, adjustment, and assimilation. Irrespective of legal limitations, minorities must have their rights—not because they are protected minorities, but because they are portions of the whole and because majorities carry responsibility for others. That is the philosophy of democracy. Jefferson announced that acquiescence in the decision of majorities was the vital principle of republics; but the purpose of the majority to be right must be reasonable. That is the sum of the whole matter. Democracy is not consistent with irreconcilable minorities; they must acquiesce; and the power of the larger number is to be guided by reason, it must come from reasoning, from discussion, from the upbuilding of a common purpose and a common life. Acquiescence is more difficult than domination. Such is the lesson which the young fledgling democracies of eastern Europe must learn if they are to hold aloft on their adventurous flight. On the other hand, the tyranny of the *sans culotte* is no better than the despotism of the over-dressed.

In the Gettysburg address Lincoln appealed for a new birth of freedom. He hoped that those who died there, those that offered the last full measure of devotion, would create by their death a finer spirit for the living. He hoped that America would go on with a fuller life consecrated to freedom and justice. Had he lived, he would have been sadly disappointed. I do not maintain that those lives were given in vain; slavery was banished and the nation was saved. This saving of the nation by willing sacrifice gave strength to the spirit of popular government; it gave courage and hope to the unrepresented peoples of Britain and other states of Europe. But after that war came years of petty revengeful politics; and the men of America, for whom the heroes of Gettysburg perished, turned to the material tasks of a materialistic generation, to exploiting the natural resources of the continent, as if life were no more than meat or the body than raiment. In large measure they left the new birth of freedom to the none too tender care of wrangling and ambitious party leaders. It is not so easy now to shirk the responsibilities of the hour, because the west is gone; and it must not be done again, if democracy was worth dying for. The burdens of social responsibilities lie at our very doors. If we insist on putting petty politicians into office and on shunning the tasks which humanity here and in the world at large has thrust upon us, we shall shame the cause for which we fought and court disaster. Momentous as our victory in France may be, momentous in overturning Europe, in banishing autocracy, possibly even more important is the effect upon ourselves. Are those conquests by that maddening reacting perversity which muddies the whole stream

of history, to make us vain, nationalistic, and domineering, or is there to be a freshening of life, a clarification of character?

This war, we have asserted, is to make the world safe for democracy; but democracy can be safe only if it is democratic. The great question before the world today is whether America will play whole-heartedly the rôle of a democratic nation. That is the center of the whole world-problem. Democracy as a spirit, a spirit partly begotten and greatly enlarged and strengthened by a theory of political organization, has shown itself masterful, conquering, almost, it would seem, irresistible. Thrones have been overturned, the secret chancelleries of nations have been opened to the gaze of an irreverent public, dynasties have disappeared, wilful autocratic over-lords have fled into the darkness. From the days when America, acknowledging a decent respect for the opinion of mankind, announced that governments obtain their just powers from the consent of the governed, the mills of the gods have been grinding not slowly but exceeding fine. It is easy enough for mole-eyed materialists to talk of territories and markets and economic penetrations and mailed fists and national armies and tribal gods; but the world has been changed under the hammering insistence of a principle of human life. Once and again, and most plainly last of all, democracy has risen in its armed might and hurled itself against its enemy. But its victories have on the whole been silent victories, untroubled by the din of physical warfare, unsullied by human sacrifice. The real struggle has been continuous, unintermitting, most real when most unnoticed. Democracy overthrew autocracy because it was life fighting with death, or youth with age. Autocracy was beaten in the war because it was beaten as a principle of living, as a reality, before the war began. Wars only register conquests. Men and women that can read and think should see this thing plainly. You fight in vain against a tide of human progress.

And now that America has won, what will she do—America who, cherishing, enlarging, and upbuilding the principles of British freedom for which the men of Britain had themselves struggled and suffered, America, who, more than any other nation, unless it be the old and the regenerated England, is responsible for this spread of democracy through the last century and a half—what will America do? Well, we are told she will now live unto herself, scorn companionship, flout co-operation, shield herself from duty, assume irresponsibility. Such words would be funny if they were not so serious; all the more serious because they come from men sparring for party advantage and playing with the prejudices of races and factions. For this all means that we shall abjure democracy

and refuse to act it out. We gave, forsooth, we gave our boys for revenge, to punish Germany, to ward off fear from our coasts, not to clarify and cleanse human life; we sent those 2,000,000 young fellows across the sea that we might be safe to lead an irresponsible existence, sharking for our own booty, heedless, content, autocratic, because uncompanionable, superior, inaccessible, self-willed—forgetting that democracy implies responsibility, faith, education, solidarity, adjustment, communication, companionship, co-operation, publicity, morality based on self-compulsion.

Some things even the blind should see. You cannot act one thing and be another. If you would be democratic, act the democrat. In the world of international affairs maintain your faith, take courage from your belief in the hearts of men, rely on enlightened public opinion and strive to enlighten it and your own mind, trust to the weapons of publicity as the foe of stealth and intrigue and hidden malice. Cherish companionship, recognize life as a series of readjustments and accommodations, shoulder responsibilities, cast out mean fear even though it be called danger to the Monroe doctrine, practice friendliness, and be high-hearted even as our boys were high-hearted and ready for service and death. "Small minds," said Burke, "and great empires go ill together." America if it would be great must be big-minded, magnanimous, and spiritually strong. If we deny ourselves in the wide currents of the world, refuse to act the democrat, decline to participate in a world-arrangement based on consent and agreement, pride ourselves on a puny-souled invulnerability, think we can shut ourselves off by a hedge of self-imposed divinity, we don't deserve to live as a democracy. We shall not be a democracy. We shall have already fallen a prey to the cancer of autocratic irresponsibility, to the corroding acids of self-will. We cannot be inwardly democratic and outwardly autocratic—inwardly hope-full, faith-full, friendly, frank, and humane, outwardly repelling, unsocial, sullen, superior, distrustful, forceful. For the revivification of our own souls the nation must act on the moral tenets of its own accepted philosophy or lose it, sear its own spirit, deaden its own life. As Germany attempted to play the rôle of the autocrat because the nation was permeated with the philosophy of autocracy, America must play the democrat if she is filled with the spirit and the philosophy of democracy.

THE PRESIDENT'S CONVOCATION STATEMENT

PEACE CONDITIONS AT THE UNIVERSITY

The surrender of Germany last November has brought the war practically to an end, although of course before its legal close many arrangements remain to be made. Even so, the purposes for which our country entered the great war have to a large extent been accomplished, and we can feel that the sacrifices which have been made so lavishly by our people have not been made in vain.

The current quarter has marked the beginning of the closing out of war conditions in the University, and distinct progress toward the resumption of ordinary conditions of life. It is perhaps fairly to be expected that the coming autumn will witness the renewing of activities substantially as they were before the war.

WHAT THE WAR HAS MEANT TO THE UNIVERSITY

In common with all other educational institutions in the United States, the University endeavored to do its part in support of the national cause. At the outset all the laboratories were offered to the government, and they were able to render very active, and we believe very useful, service. Sixty-two members of the faculty at one time or another were released from their duties to render service for the United States in the war. Twenty-eight members of the faculty have given active service without leaving their place in the quadrangles. Others, including assistants, are so many that the entire service on behalf of the faculty amounts to approximately two hundred. Some of these, like Lieutenant Colonel Henry Gordon Gale of the Department of Physics, were in the Army in France. Others, like Mr. Francis Warner Parker of the Board of Trustees, had important administrative duties in that country for the Young Men's Christian Association. Others, like Colonel Frank Billings, Lieutenant Colonel Robert Andrews Millikan, and Lieutenant Commander Albert A. Michelson, were retained in Washington in the military or naval service. All names will be duly entered on the records of the University, and fully published in the Annual Report which will be rendered at the close of the present year.

Our alumni and students gave the "full measure of devotion" to their country. The service flag given to the University by its alumni last spring contains 1,068 stars, and others have been added since. Their record has been an honorable one, and one of which the University will long have reason to be proud. Not a few gave their lives, and these the University will commemorate during the coming quarter, on Memorial Day, a day which hereafter will mean so much to us. It seems entirely fitting, further, that there should be in the quadrangles a worthy memorial in perpetual memory of the University's sons whose lives are a part of the great price which the world has given for liberty and justice.

LOSSES BY DEATH

Since the last Convocation the University has met a great loss from its circle in the death of two of its number. Mr. Newman Miller for many years was the very able and faithful Director of the University Press. Professor George Burman Foster was a force in the higher life of many thousands of people, and a man of so rare qualities that we cannot expect to replace him in any way in the faculty. We will stand in honor of Newman Miller and George Burman Foster.

PLANS FOR DEVELOPMENT

Of course the war has delayed various activities in which the University was deeply interested when hostilities came on. These plans and others which may be the fruitage of the war we may now take up with confident expectation of early realization.

As all are aware, the medical fund was completed before the declaration of war. The architect is busy preparing the plans for the Billings Hospital and the Epstein Dispensary, and it is believed that as soon as the conditions of business warrant we shall be able to proceed at once with construction. Meanwhile, it is unnecessary to say that careful attention will be given to completing the plans for the organization of that very important and interesting work of the University for the future.

The plans for the Theological Building and for the Henry Bond Chapel have been completed, and as soon as business conditions warrant work will proceed on those very attractive and very important additions to the resources of the Divinity School. Of course at the present time the generous funds given for these purposes would not suffice for the erection of the buildings on the abnormal costs which the war has created.

The architect for the University Chapel building, Mr. Bertram Grosvenor Goodhue of New York, is making preliminary studies, and in due time the plans will be ready for the consideration of the Board of Trustees. We shall all rejoice when we can see what we confidently believe will be a beautiful and impressive building erected on the block east of the President's House which will symbolize, we trust for the centuries to come, the finer spiritual life of the University.

The war has made plain the fact that in all our educational institutions there has been and is a very genuine spirit of loyalty to the nation. It has also shown the desirability of perpetuating the spirit and of developing in many ways the capacity to understand and to serve the Republic. In the days when Metternich was ruling the policies of central Europe he saw to it that the Austrian universities should carefully refrain from any lines of thought having to do with government. It was his belief that Greek philosophy, art, and music should be the real material of instruction, as he was confident that they did not involve any danger to his particular form of government. He was doubtless incorrect. The human mind cannot be diverted even by the felicities of Greek literature, or of opera, from thinking about the realities of life. However, it certainly is advisable that our educated men and women should have a reason for the faith that is in them bearing on the conduct of citizens. The magnificent gift of Mr. La Verne Noyes for scholarships in honor of those who have served in the great world-war for liberty will be made the basis and center in the University of training in the higher realities of citizenship which it is believed cannot fail to be of benefit to the Republic in the generations to come. The ghastly spectacle of conditions in Russia shows among other things the fantastic folly of inadequate education in the realities of public order. Our Republic, if it is to endure, must be a land of liberty under law.

GIFTS TO THE UNIVERSITY

The current quarter has witnessed the receipt by the University of several very interesting additions to its resources.

Mr. J. L. Rosenberger has made a gift of fifteen hundred dollars to endow the "Susan Colver Rosenberger Educational Prizes" as a memorial to his late wife. Mr. Rosenberger was at one time a student and his wife was a graduate of the old University of Chicago. The income of the fund will be used to give prizes for research in educational work or methods, whether in the Department of Education or in the work of the Divinity School. I quote from the letter of gift: "This endowment is intended to be a special memorial to my late wife, Susan

Colver Rosenberger, to the end that her name may distinctively continue in the cause of education to be something of the inspiration which she herself was in her lifetime." I quote further: "It is desired to have the prizes awarded as stimuli for constructive study and original research to develop practical ideas for the improvement of the educational aims and methods in the fields suggested." The University is indebted to Mr. Rosenberger not merely for his generosity but also for the very interesting purpose which he has selected for development.

Mr. Joseph Triner has provided the funds for a scholarship in the Department of Chemistry. "The Joseph Triner Scholarship in Chemistry" is to be assigned to a Czecho-Slovak graduate of the Harrison Technical High School of this city who has pursued at least one year of chemistry in that school, who is recommended by the principal of that school, and approved by the Chairman of the Department of Chemistry in the University of Chicago. The scholarship carries a stipend which will provide tuition and laboratory fees for one year. The University has had not a few students from our fellow-citizens of Czecho-Slovak ancestry, and we are glad to welcome more of them. Their loyal American citizenship is well known. Their interest in the higher learning is well known. This generous gift is perhaps indicative of the relationship which the University has long had to our fellow-citizens of this ancestry, and we are rejoiced to extend special honors to those of their number who win distinction.

Another very interesting gift has come from one of our own immediate circle, a thousand-dollar, five per cent bond, given to the University, the income on which is to be used as an annual prize to be known as the "John Billings Fiske Prize in Poetry." This gift comes from Mr. Horace Spencer Fiske, in memory of his father, who was a lover of poetry and an honor graduate of Union College. I quote from the letter of gift: "The wide and growing interest now being taken in poetry in this country has suggested that universities might be a great influence in the production of that form of literature, and of contributing something of pleasure and stimulus and beauty to our national life." This prize will hereafter be awarded annually, and it is hoped will encourage students in future years in that particular form of intellectual life which is so dear to the donor.

WAR FINANCES OF THE UNIVERSITY

From many quarters information shows that universities and colleges have suffered financially from the war to such an extent as to lead in many cases to considerable deficits in the current year. The University

of Chicago has in every way done its share, we think, toward war service. At the same time, deficits are contrary to our established policy, and I am authorized to say that at the close of the current year the University's accounts will show no deficit. All understand that endowed institutions of learning are somewhat in the position of private persons whose incomes are obtained from fixed salaries or from investments which bear a fixed rate of interest. In other words, the income does not increase, while the cost of living necessitates a largely increased expenditure. This is not comfortable in private life, and it is not comfortable for educational corporations. Business institutions of course may be expected to derive a largely increased income from the war conditions which have brought about the higher cost of living. That is not the case to any appreciable extent with universities and colleges. In order, therefore, to do anything toward somewhat alleviating the war conditions in the University faculty it is necessary as far as possible to restrict many desirable expansions of University activities. The Board of Trustees will use every effort to the ends indicated, with the one qualification of not departing from its fixed policy of avoiding deficits.

ATTENDANCE

The total attendance in the quadrangles during the current winter quarter is 2,808, as against 3,101 a year ago, showing a net loss of 293. This is a distinct approach toward normal conditions, a far better showing in attendance than we had any reason to expect after the general disturbance of last autumn. In University College the total number of students taking work during the current quarter has been 944, against 1,024 the winter quarter of 1918. This makes a University total of 3,752 for the winter quarter, 1919, and 4,125 for 1918.

THE VICE-PRESIDENT

From July, 1918, to February, 1919, the President of the University was absent from his post, being engaged in an important mission to Persia in the service of famine relief and of the American Commissioners to Negotiate Peace. During all those months, in which the University had to cope with war conditions which did not quite disrupt its normal affairs, the institution was very wisely and faithfully administered by the Vice-President, Professor James R. Angell, to whom especial gratitude and high appreciation are due, and I most cordially and sincerely tender these to him now.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

By J. SPENCER DICKERSON, *Secretary*

DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

Professor Julius Stieglitz, chairman of the Department of Chemistry, in a communication to the Board of Trustees, called attention to two expressions of judgment concerning the high quality of University of Chicago men engaged in chemical-warfare service.

These two expressions are contained in a letter of Mr. Gerald L. Wendt and are as follows:

Captain Ross, at the Edgewood Arsenal, said to me that of all the ten thousand men there, either enlisted men or officers, no one had made such a record or deserved such commendation as Kharasch of Chicago, and that only second to him was Mr. Hellerman.

Major Evans stated that all Chicago men had done exceptionally well, and that it was an entire surprise to find how unanimously the Chicago men towered above the others.

BEQUEST OF MARTHA E. FRENCH

Mr. Charles H. Ewing, of Chicago, has notified the University that—

Under the terms of her will, Miss Martha Ellen French left a few small bequests to personal friends; bequeathed $25,000 to Oberlin College, of which she was a graduate; $20,000 to Lincoln Institute of Kentucky, and made the University of Chicago and Hull House Association of Chicago, her residuary legatees in the following clause: "The remainder of my estate, I give to be divided equally between Hull House and the Helen Culver Fund for the endowment of the Hull Biological Laboratories of the University of Chicago, subject to the same conditions as the existing Fund." Of course, the amount which a residuary legatee will receive cannot be definitely determined until the probate of the estate is closed, but I should think that the University of Chicago would receive in the neighborhood of $5,000 from her estate.

PRESIDENT JUDSON'S MISSION TO PERSIA

At the February meeting of the Board of Trustees, President Judson presented a full report of his mission to Persia as director of the American-Persian Relief Commission under the auspices of the American Committee for Relief in the Near East. The purposes of the mission were twofold:

The President was appointed to the directorship of the American-Persian Relief Commission, with the intent of endeavoring to remedy conditions in Persia resulting from famine, pestilence, and war. The American Committee for Relief in the Near East, formerly the American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief, had been

sending funds to various missionaries in Persia for the past two years. It was thought best that a commission should go out to Persia, in order to study the situation and organize relief on a more definite basis and on a larger scale, if necessary.

Committee, of which Colonel E. M. House is chairman, and which was busy collecting material for the use of our Commissioners to negotiate peace when such Commission should be appointed, requested the President of the University to make a report to that Committee on the political and social conditions in Persia, and, so far as possible, in adjacent countries. This suggestion of the Committee was reinforced by a very specific request from the Department of State, at Washington, under whose direction and for whose benefit the Committee was acting.

Of these purposes the second was the deciding consideration in the mind of the President, as a request from the government of the United States was virtually a command, to which it was the duty of a citizen to accede at once.

The President, however, made one condition with the Department of State, namely, that the visit to Persia for this purpose should be made with the full knowledge and approval of the British government. The matter was cabled by the Department to the British government, and the reply expressed entire approval.

After describing in detail the work performed by the mission the report concludes with these paragraphs:

In Paris the Director filed a report with the American Commission to negotiate peace, in three typewritten volumes, one on Mesopotamia, one on Persia, and one on the Caucasus. It included detailed studies on various political, economic, and social conditions in those countries, with specific recommendations as to policies which, in the judgment of the Director, ought to be carried out, in order to secure peace and order, in place of the disorders which for so many years have been prevalent. Having finished the report and filed it with the Commission, and having had personal conferences with the Secretary of State, Colonel House, and other members of the Commission and staff, the party returned to the United States.

In thanking the Board of Trustees for the generous leave of absence, the President wishes to say that he believes the long and somewhat arduous journey was successful, not merely in the relief undertakings in Persia, but in the information given to our Commissioners, which they were good enough to say was of the highest value.

MILITARY TRAINING

A plan for military training has been adopted which does not provide for military drill during the year, but which will undertake to give, in connection with programs drawn up by the various staff corps, expert instruction fitting students on the technical side for one or another of the several branches of army service. Students entering the military courses will be held for three summer camps. One of these may be in the summer preceding entrance on the college course and one the summer succeeding graduation.

Harold E. Marr, lieutenant colonel in the United States Army, has been appointed by the War Department and will serve as Professor of Military Science and Tactics in the University.

DEAN JAMES ROWLAND ANGELL

At the meeting of the Board of Trustees held February 11, 1919, a letter, of which the following is a copy, was presented:

February 7, 1919

To the Board of Trustees
The University of Chicago

With the welcome return of President Judson to his post at the University my duties as Vice-President are at an end.

I trust you will permit me to express my sincere appreciation of the unfailing consideration which you have shown me during the trying events of the last few months. Without your full confidence and co-operation it would have been difficult, if not impossible, to adjust ourselves to the onrush of an almost daily change of circumstance. It has been a great privilege to serve you and the University in these disturbed times and I hope and believe that we have issued from the struggle stronger in many ways than when we entered it.

You will, I am sure, allow me also to comment gratefully on the unswerving loyalty of my colleagues during this crisis. Nothing could have been finer than the whole-souled and self-sacrificing way in which they have thrown themselves into the work, many of them straining their physical resources to the last possible point. It would be a pleasure to mention by name some of them to whom we are most indebted but selection would be difficult and the list would be very long. The names and services of those who left us to enter one or another form of government service and of whom we are so justly proud, will in due time no doubt come to your notice. But those who remained at home in many cases carried the heavier burden and are at least equally deserving of our gratitude. So far as I have had opportunity to observe, this self-same spirit of devotion has permeated the student body and the entire business and administrative staff. I feel it a great honor to have been permitted to work side by side with men and women of such character.

(*Signed*) JAMES R. ANGELL

The Secretary, in accordance with a formal vote of the Board, sent to Dean Angell the following expression of its appreciation of his services during the absence of the President of the University:

February 12, 1919

Mr. James R. Angell, Vice-President
The University of Chicago

In acknowledging your communication of February 7 addressed to the Board of Trustees, its members at the meeting held February 11, 1919, upon the initiative of President Judson, unanimously voted to express to you its sense of appreciation of the services you performed as Vice-President of the University during the absence of the President, a period characterized by exceptional difficulties.

The seven months during which you served as Vice-President witnessed not only the conclusion of the world-war but the consideration of some of the most intricate problems concerned with the winning of the war. The University naturally felt the influence of this time of unrest in well-nigh every department of its activities.

In these months too, in co-operation with the War and Navy departments, the University whole-heartedly entered upon the hitherto untried task of educating soldiers

and sailors. The time during which the Student Army Training Corps was in training was long enough plainly to indicate the difficulties involved, although entirely too short convincingly to prove the real value of this somewhat experimental emergency effort to produce a body of fighting men trained in mind as well as in body.

These two characteristics of the period of your administration are suggestive of the many matters you were called upon to adjust during "the onrush of an almost daily change of circumstance."

The Board of Trustees desires to express its satisfaction with the manner with which you met the situation and the success which attended your efforts. The loyalty of your colleagues during this time of crisis, the co-operation observable in the business and administrative staff, the spirit of devotion of the student body, all were increased by the uniform tactfulness of your decisions, the wisdom of your administrative and executive acts, a tactfulness and a wisdom employed wholly for the good of the University.

On behalf of the Board of Trustees,

(*Signed*) J. SPENCER DICKERSON, *Secretary*

SUSAN COLVER ROSENBERGER EDUCATIONAL PRIZES

The Trustees, at the meeting held February 11, 1919, accepted a gift tendered by Mr. Jesse L. Rosenberger "to endow in perpetuity what shall be known as the Susan Colver Rosenberger Educational Prizes," the income from the fund to be used for prizes:

One prize to be awarded in one year, or at one time, either in connection with the School of Education or such other department of the University as may be deemed best, for a thesis that shall meet the requirements of the University and give the results of valuable original research on some important phase of sound elementary, home, kindergarten, primary, or grammar-school education, its principles, needs, methods, or discipline, or pertaining to child welfare, or else, when thought best, to be awarded for the best practical essay or thesis produced in competition and treating in some original way of one or the other of said subjects. The next prize to be awarded the next year or time in connection with such other department or departments of the University as may be thought best, as a reward for meritorious original research and an acceptable thesis, or competitively for the best essay or thesis, on some important phase of education or educational principles, needs, or methods in relation to, or as an essential part of, religious, home or foreign mission, Sunday-school, social settlement, or betterment work, or in relation to the general welfare, whichever it is believed at the time will do the most good. It is particularly desired to encourage original research of a kind to warrant and secure publication. In other words, it is desired to have the prizes awarded alternately, as stimuli for constructive study and original research to develop practical ideas for the improvement of educational aims and methods in the fields suggested and among the students in such departments of the University as it may from time to time be thought the greatest good will be done.

This endowment is intended as a special memorial to Susan Colver Rosenberger (Mrs. Jesse L. Rosenberger) "to the end that her name may distinctively continue in the cause of education to be something of the inspiration which she herself was in her lifetime, she having prac-

tically consecrated her life to that cause. . . . . She spent nearly thirty years in the service of the public schools of Chicago, first as a teacher, and then for twenty-two years as a principal, until she broke down in health. . . . . She was a graduate of the old University of Chicago, class of 1882, and received the degrees of A.B. and A.M."

This is the sixth gift made by Mr. Rosenberger, either individually or in connection with Mrs. Rosenberger.

RETIREMENT OF PROFESSOR MONCRIEF

At his request Associate Professor John Wildman Moncrief, of the Department of Church History, has been retired from the close of the Summer Quarter, 1919, the Board of Trustees of the Baptist Theological Union concurring.

The Board of Trustees of the Theological Union at its meeting held April 1, 1919, adopted the following minute:

The Board of Trustees of the Baptist Theological Union desires to place on record its appreciation of the service rendered the Divinity School of the University of Chicago by Professor John W. Moncrief. Coming to the University in 1894, he brought to the Divinity School the enthusiasm of a broad culture and the strong faith of an earnest Christian. As a teacher of Church History he has brought to his students a wide and philosophical outlook upon human affairs. He has been a friend and counselor as well as instructor of a generation of men who are now carrying on the Kingdom of God on earth.

As the one to organize for the first time the courses in the History of Missions, he has laid the foundations for what should be one of the most important phases of the work of the Divinity School. In this field, as in courses in Church History, he has shown the relations of Christianity to the processes of historical development of society, and has thus led his classes into a broad and confident view as to the place of Christianity in the social movements.

Having granted his request to be retired from active service, the Board of Trustees expresses its hope that he may find it possible to place in some permanent form the results of his study.

THE WILLIAM HUBER, JR., MUSICAL COLLECTION

A valuable collection of music, consisting of more than 25,000 pieces, has been given to the University by Mr. William Huber, Jr., of Hamilton, Ohio, whose name it will hereafter bear. It becomes a part of the libraries of the University and will be placed in closed portfolios. An impression of the size of the collection may be obtained from its weight, which is over 6,500 pounds.

TRINER SCHOLARSHIP IN CHEMISTRY

Joseph Triner, of Chicago, has given funds to provide for five years a scholarship in chemistry for a Czecho-Slovak graduate of the Harrison Technical High School, Chicago, who shall have pursued with

distinction at least one year of chemistry in that school, who is recommended by the principal of the school and approved by the chairman of the Department of Chemistry in the University of Chicago.

THE JOHN BILLINGS FISKE PRIZE IN POETRY

Horace Spencer Fiske, connected with the University since 1894, at first in the University Extension Division, then as Assistant Recorder and now in the University Press, has contributed a fund, the income from which shall provide, in honor of his father, the John Billings Fiske Prize in Poetry. The prize is to be awarded annually in a competition open to graduate and undergraduate students alike, the judges to be the head of the Department of English, a leading American poet, and a leading American critic.

THE UNIVERSITY PRESS

The Board of Trustees has authorized the removal of the bookstore from the Press Building to Ellis Hall, where extensive repairs have been made in order to give additional space, nearly twice the amount hitherto available, for the requirements of the bookstore. There is an abundance of light. New bookshelves, show cases, and other fixtures have been provided.

By action of the Board the Retail Department of the Press becomes the University of Chicago Bookstore.

The activities of the Press are eventually to be divided into three distinct departments: Manufacturing (including printing and bookbinding), Publishing, and the University Bookstore, each under separate management.

Mr. Newman Miller, since 1900 Director of the University Press, died January 8, 1919.

Dean Angell has been appointed Acting Director of the University Press.

APPOINTMENTS

In addition to reappointments the following appointments have been made by the Board of Trustees:

J. O. McKinsey to an instructorship in the School of Commerce and Administration, from January 1, 1919.

Percival Bailey to an associateship in the Department of Anatomy, from January 1, 1919.

E. B. Fink to an associateship in the Department of Pathology, from January 1, 1919.

Eliazbeth A. Todd as teacher in Home Economics in the High School, School of Education, from January 1, 1919.

Elinor Castle as teacher of French in the High School, School of Education, from January 1, 1919.

Harry T. Fultz as teacher of Mechanical Drawing in the High School, School of Education, from October 1, 1919.

Zoe Bayliss as teacher in the Elementary School, School of Education, from January 1, 1919.

Ivan C. Hall as Logan Fellow for the academic year, 1919–20, beginning October 1, 1919.

W. J. Crozier, Ph.D., to an assistant professorship in the Department of Zoölogy, from October 1, 1919.

RESIGNATIONS

The Board of Trustees has accepted the resignations of the following members of the Faculties:

Wiliam R. Meeker, associate in the Department of Anatomy, to take effect January 1, 1919.

Beatrice Hunter, instructor in Home Economics in the High School, to take effect January 1, 1919.

Lee I. Knight, Assistant Professor in the Department of Botany, to take effect February 1, 1919.

Albert D. Brokaw, Professor in the Department of Geology, to take effect in February, 1919.

Curt Rosenow, Instructor in the Department of Psychology, to take effect March 31, 1919.

Agnes K. Hanna, Instructor in Home Economics, School of Education, to take effect December 31, 1918.

W. F. Dodd, of the Department of Political Science, to take effect April 1, 1919.

Morris M. Wells, Assistant Professor in the Department of Zoölogy, to take effect September 30, 1919.

Katherine L. Cronin, Instructor in Physical Science, to take effect April 1, 1919.

PROMOTIONS

Associate Professor Conyers Read, of the Department of History, to a professorship from October 1, 1919.

Assistant Professor D. D. Luckenbill, of the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures, to an associate professorship from October 1, 1919.

Associate Professor George T. Northup, of the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures, to a professorship from October 1, 1919.

Instructor Franck L. Schoell, of the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures, to an assistant professorship from October 1, 1919.

Associate Professor J. W. Linn, of the Department of the English Language and Literature, to a professorship from October 1, 1919.

Associate Professor C. R. Baskervill, of the Department of the English Language and Literature, to a professorship from October 1, 1919.

Assistant Professor T. A. Knott, of the Department of the English Language and Literature, to an associate professorship from October 1, 1919.

Instructor C. H. Grabo, of the Department of the English Language and Literature, to an assistant professorship from July 1, 1919.

Instructor George W. Sherburn, of the Department of the English Language and Literature, to an assistant professorship from October 1, 1919.

Instructor David H. Stevens, of the Department of the English Language and Literature, to an assistant professorship from October 1, 1919.

Assistant Professor John A. Parkhurst, of the Department of Astronomy, to an associate professorship from January 1, 1920.

Assistant Professor Elbert Clark, of the Department of Anatomy, to an associate professorship from October 1, 1919.

Assistant Professor George W. Bartelmez, of the Department of Anatomy, to an associate professorship from October 1, 1919.

Assistant Professor Rollo M. Tryon, of the Department of Education, to an associate professorship from July 1, 1919.

Instructor Mabel B. Trilling, of the Department of Education, to an assistant professorship from October 1, 1919.

Instructor Lydia J. Roberts, of the Department of Education, to an assistant professorship from October 1, 1919.

Instructor Emery T. Filbey, of the Department of Education to an assistant professorship from October 1, 1919.

Instructor Arthur P. Scott of the Department of History, to an assistant professorship from October 1, 1919.

Associate Professor Herman Oliphant, of the Law School, to a professorship from October 1, 1919.

Instructor William H. Spencer, of the School of Commerce and Administration, to an assistant professorship from October 1, 1919.

LEAVES OF ABSENCE

To the following member of the Faculties leave of absence has been granted:

Assistant Professor Nathaniel W. Barnes, of the School of Commerce and Administration, beginning January 1, 1919, to work in France under the Y.M.C.A., teaching business English to soldiers in the army camps. The work is part of a general program of education conducted by the Y.M.C.A. under approval of the War Department.

MISCELLANEOUS

An appropriation has been made for repairing the west half of the room in Lexington Hall formerly used as a women's gymnasium. This room and others are used as a day nursery for the benefit chiefly of the children of members of the Faculties.

Plans for the proposed Theology Building and for the Bond Memorial Chapel have been formally adopted. The funds were provided for the erection of these two buildings during the years 1916 and 1917.

Extensive repairs are being made in the Anatomy and Physiology buildings, for which appropriations have been made.

An appropriation has been made to aid in the establishment, at 5610 Woodlawn Avenue, of La Maison Française, intended to serve as headquarters for persons interested in the French language, literature, and institutions, under the supervision and advice of the Romance Department.

Through Miss Katharine Blunt, of the School of Education, a fellowship in home economics has been provided by a friend for the year 1919-20. The woman to whom the fellowship is awarded will spend a part of her time in research in food chemistry, nutrition, or related subjects.

Mr. C. R. Crane has once more shown his interest in the University and in European and Asiatic peoples by contributing $2,000 to provide Armenian instruction at the University for a period of years. The instructor during the Summer Quarter will be Mr. Bedikian.

Beginning with the Autumn Quarter the rent of rooms in men's halls will be increased approximately 10 per cent.

CHARLES JEROLD HULL

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

This is a strange story of an unusual sort of man. It will seem a fiction of the writer's imagination, but it is, in fact, an authentic record of the life of Charles J. Hull. The story is told because, as will appear, the name of Mr. Hull is written large in the history of the University of Chicago.

He traced his ancestry back to Rev. Joseph Hull, graduate of Oxford, rector in the Church of England, whose leanings toward dissent brought him with "a considerable flock of his people" to the New World in 1635. This body of immigrants, known as "Hull's Colony," received a grant of land on the south shore of Boston Bay. The town, in memory of the old home from which they had come, soon exchanged its Indian name of Wessaguscus for that of Weymouth. A century and a quarter later descendants of Joseph Hull were people of substance living on the large island of Conanicut in Narragansett Bay, and it is said that a house still stands on this island, burned by the British in the Revolutionary War, but later rebuilt, and known as the "Old Hull Place." A small neighboring island known as Prudence was owned by the Slocums, but this was so devastated by the English that the family never returned to it. A son of the Hulls, Robert, and a daughter of the Slocums, Sarah, married, and these were Charles J. Hull's grandparents. His father, Benjamin, married Sarah Morley, and Charles was born March 18, 1820, "in a little, rough house once a cooper shop" on the corner of his grandfather Morley's farm in Manchester, Connecticut, twelve miles east of Hartford. The mother died a few weeks after his birth, and the father migrated to Ohio, which was then a far west and pioneer country. The family, on both sides, seems to have fallen on evil times. The grandfather, Robert Hull, with his wife, had settled on a farm near Castile, Wyoming County, New York, about fifty miles southeast of Buffalo. To them, it does not appear just when or how, the young Charles was committed, perhaps by the father on his migration westward. The son saw him but once thereafter, in 1839, and then had to seek him out in his Ohio home, where he died in 1853.

The orphaned boy was welcomed into the home of his grandparents, who lavished upon him the tenderest affection and the most devoted care. This love and devotion he returned in full measure. The grandmother was evidently the forceful member of the family. They were all curiously illiterate, but Mr. Hull always spoke of his grandmother in terms of extraordinary appreciation, as beautiful, physically, mentally, and morally, a noble woman.

> At seventy-five her movements were graceful, her voice clear and musical, her hair glossy and soft, her eyes large, dark, and bright, and her skin as white, soft, and beautiful as a child's. . . . . She scarcely learned to read, yet she had strong sense, was a faithful wife and good mother; she was strong-willed, courageous, and lion-hearted, and yet she was always tender and motherly. . . . . Her influence is always with me and blessed be her name forever. I owe her for my very life.

The grandfather was an honest, kind, hard-working farmer, who, to add to the insufficient income from the farm, made his house a country tavern in which, as was the universal custom, whiskey was sold. The boy was brought up on the farm and behind the bar.

When he was fifty-six years old Mr. Hull wrote an account of his early experiences in school:

> Fifty years ago this summer, I think, I was sent to school to learn the Alphabet. I was a wild, rough, barefooted, bare-headed, restless, human animal. Being placed on a slab bench, without back . . . . I soon forgot the dignity of the place and whistled. The crime was charged upon me and a cloud of small witnesses stood ready to testify. . . . . I indignantly denied the accusation. But the proof was conclusive . . . . and I was flogged. I went home, reported, and was told that I need not go to school any more. I had a rest then for about three or four years, when it was decided that I must be taught to write. A sheet of foolscap paper was purchased, folded and pinned together so as to make four leaves, and I was sent to school with instructions to write two pages a day. At the end of four days I returned the paper for inspection and it was nearly a solid ink blot. The ruling member of the family then decided that it was wholly useless to send me to school; that I never could learn anything, and I was put into the tavern to tend bar. But fate seemed determined that I should not be let off in that easy manner, and when I was about fourteen another spasm to educate me took possession of my dear old grandmother, and my grandfather's Bible, the only book I ever knew him to own, was put into my hand, and I was sent back to the log schoolhouse to get an education.

As he had a Bible he was called up with the Testament class. The boy was naturally ashamed to confess that he could not read and when called upon was silent. The teacher, who was a "fiery Irishman," gave him two or three chances and, knowing nothing of his utter illiteracy, supposed him simply obstinate and defiant and, after threatening to whip him within an inch of his life if he did not obey and read his verse, gave him still another chance, going so far as to read the

verse and ask him to repeat it. He could not remember it even then and received the worst kind of a licking. He went home and showed his arms and back. He says, "That was the last day I was sent to school. Two years later I pushed out on my own account in pursuit of knowledge."

Meantime, however, he had developed a remarkable aptitude for business. The bar of the tavern had been turned over to him two or three years before this time, and he had conducted the business of selling whiskey with so much success that when he reached the age of fourteen the sign of the tavern was changed to his name. The farm had unfortunately been mortgaged, "and it was only by the aid of his tireless zeal that the old people were able to redeem it." He was the business manager of farm and tavern. This continued for three years, until he was seventeen.

Then came a change of which he wrote:

> The old "Hull Tavern" in Castile, near Perry, was the resort of horse-traders, horse-racers, drunkards, and gamblers on a small scale. In 1837, while it was conducted without a license, in my name, a horse trade and a row occurred one night in the bar-room. One of the parties feeling aggrieved, the next day had me arrested for selling liquor without license. I paid his claim for damages, his attorney's fees, court costs, etc., and was released. From that day until this (1875), I have been a teetotaler, including tea and coffee.

All this so disgusted him that, despite the protests of his grandparents, he tore down the sign which bore his name. Not only did he become a teetotaler, but he entered on a life-long temperance crusade. Nearly forty years later he wrote, "I immediately began to think and work in a feeble way for the rescue of others. I do not remember a single week since that time in which I have not done some work in that direction."

That was, however, not the only or the principal change wrought in him in that momentous year. His mind seemed to have a new birth. He was illiterate, and all at once his intellectual needs became revealed to him and drove him into a passion of mental application. It was the transforming crisis of his life and almost overnight changed the boy into a man and awoke in him an unquenchable ambition for an education. Having unusual natural endowments, he quickly taught himself reading, writing, and spelling, and then applied himself to mathematics. The arithmetic of that day he mastered in fourteen weeks, carrying a copy of the multiplication table—while following the plow—in his hat, for easy reference. He then entered the district school and applied himself with such diligence that at the end of three months he was engaged

to teach a nearby country school. The attainments of some of his pupils were in advance of his own, and he worked early and late to meet their needs. He engaged a private instructor to hear his recitations in new studies and assist him in advanced work. During several years of teaching his private studies included algebra, surveying, Latin, and law. His grandfather was now, in 1840, seventy-five years old, and much of the heavy work of the farm fell on the twenty-year-old grandson. He was accustomed to rise very early, do the chores, go to the house of his tutor and recite to him, often before he was out of bed, and hasten to the schoolhouse, where he made the fire and swept out before the pupils arrived. "Having taught the lessons, mended the quill pens, and kept order with an ingenuity and gentleness of discipline unusual in those days, he hurried home, took the horses which his grandfather had hitched to the plow for him, and worked till dark." Or, if plowing was not needed other work kept him busy as long as he could see. This was followed by study or by speaking in the country debating societies, in which he was a conspicuous figure for ten miles round.

In 1841, at the age of twenty-one he began a contract as teacher of the village school in Perry, "to teach the school summer and winter for three years consecutively." Perry was ten or twelve miles from his grandfather's home. He began with fourteen pupils and ended the first term with sixty-five.

At the close of this period of teaching he entered the academy at Lima in the adjoining county of Livingston, where he continued his studies for a year and a half. His experience at Lima gave conclusive evidence of the extraordinary progress he had made in the six years since he first awoke to the value of an education. After a few months he was teaching some studies in the academy while still being taught in others. Part of his support while at the academy was earned by doing odd jobs about the village.

In the summer of 1839, when nineteen years old, Mr. Hull had made a curious journey. What moved him to make it is uncertain. Did he wish to meet his father, whom he had not seen since his infancy? Did he desire simply to see something of the world beyond his home county? Or was the lure of the New West beginning to exercise its fascination over him? However strongly he was moved by any or all of these things, the journey was undoubtedly the result of that intellectual and spiritual awakening which had begun the year before and was still the controlling force in his life. Providing himself with a

horse, doubtless from the farm, he rode south into Pennsylvania and west through Ohio, where he saw his father, through Indiana and Illinois, finally reaching Chicago. Although at that time Chicago was only a village of about 4,000 people and had not yet recovered from the disastrous panic of 1837, young Hull, with the unerring business instinct he possessed, at once decided that it should be his future home.

It was while he was in the academy at Lima that he met the young woman who was to become his wife, Melicent A. C. Loomis, of whom it was said: "She seems to have had all her life that nameless charm which takes captive all hearts." Long after her death friends spoke of her as "the loveliest of women." The young man himself was a personable, gifted, and ambitious youth. They were mutually attracted, became engaged, and were married in 1846.

Carrying out the purpose formed seven years before, Mr. Hull took his wife to Chicago and there made his home for the rest of his life. He was twenty-six years old. Though Chicago as a real town was younger than he was, it had been incorporated as a city. Its population, however, was only 14,000. It was still only an overgrown village with few public improvements. No railroad from the east had yet reached it. The western terminus of the Michigan Central was sixty-six miles east, at New Buffalo, and the road was not extended to Chicago until six years later. Fort Dearborn with its reservation still occupied what is now the most valuable business part of the city. The public schools employed only thirteen teachers. No real estate boom had yet followed the disastrous panic of 1837. The city was in the stage of arrested development, waiting for the coming of the railroads.

It will be sufficiently evident from the story as already told that when Mr. Hull reached Chicago he was without means. It does not appear how he raised the funds to marry a wife and transport her and himself to their new home, nor by what route they came, whether by boat from Buffalo or by rail to New Buffalo and thence by stage. One cannot but admire the courage of a man who, without means, could take his wife seven hundred miles to a new and strange city, where no business opening awaited him, but where he must immediately find employment in order to live. Quite illiterate up to eighteen, a farmer boy and a bartender, with the slenderest preparation a country-school teacher for a few years, a student in a village academy for a year and a half, the prospects could hardly be called bright for him in a small western city whose future was still uncertain. While he felt absolute

confidence in himself he does not appear to have had any defininte plan of procedure. At this period of his life he was an opportunist and proposed to avail himself of whatever offered. He accepted the first opening that presented itself and became clerk in a hardware store while looking for something better.

Mr. Hull had an extraordinary aptitude for business. His employer quickly discovered this and at the end of the first month proposed to double his salary; but Mr. Hull's alert intelligence had already discerned a business opening, and he began merchandising in a small way. It must have been a very small way at the outset, as he was quite without means, and he must very soon have begun to take large chances and have branched out in more than one direction. He conducted a store for general merchandise on Lake Street, but he also bought grain and shipped it east. In the course of three or four years he had accumulated a small fortune, amounting, it is said, to $40,000, and seemed to have every prospect of large success. In 1849, however, disaster overtook him. Fire destroyed his store and his entire stock of goods. He had a cargo of grain in Buffalo and, compelled to sell by the Chicago disaster, a sudden fall in the price of wheat made the wreck of his business complete. Turning his assets into cash and collecting what was owing him be paid his obligations and was ready to begin again, though once more without means.

He then made a surprising but entirely characteristic change.

Children had come to him, three of them, two boys and a girl. During these years he had given such time as he could find for it to the study of law, and after his business reverses he opened an office and began the practice of law, acquiring sufficient business for the support of his family. At the same time, feeling that a knowledge of medicine would be useful to him in legal practice, and being moved also by the fact that the members of his family were of delicate constitutions, he attended lectures in Rush Medical College, went through the course of study and in 1851 received the degree of M.D. from that institution. It is evident that the five years that had passed since his arrival in Chicago, devoted to business, to the study and practice of law, and to compassing a complete course in medicine, had been a period of extraordinary toil. And then came the surprising change. Having paid his debts and got his medical degree, instead of going on with his law practice he took his wife and three children, went to Cambridge, and entered the Harvard Law School. There he remained two years working with his characteristic zeal and energy and enjoying the large

opportunities of self-improvement which that center of learning offered. As he had saved almost nothing from the wreck of his Chicago business the most rigid economy was necessary, and one wonders how he managed to support his family of five during the two years the law course required. He afterward referred to the Harvard experience as "a scuffle with poverty." But Mr. Hull was an unusual man and without doubt found methods of adding to his income of which other men would not have thought. He graduated from the Law School in 1853 at the age of thirty-three. He then did another surprising and characteristic thing. He proceeded to Washington and applied for admission to the bar of the United States Supreme Court and was admitted on motion of the Hon. Reverdy Johnson. Returning to Chicago he resumed the practice of law with such immediate success that within a few months, by March, 1854, in addition to supporting his family and paying a small debt incurred at Harvard, he had saved a thousand dollars. This thousand dollars has a peculiar significance in the story of his life from the fact that the use he made of it eventually diverted him from the law to real estate and to the career of buying and improving and selling land. He had purchased a piece of land in the west division of Chicago for $10,000 and, with his savings making the first payment on it, he subdivided and sold it almost immediately. He then bought a second tract, which within three days after its purchase was also subdivided and on record and offered for sale. Real estate was still a side issue, however, and the law was his real business, with an evidently increasing practice. With all these irons in the fire he must have been a busy man. He had an extraordinary faculty for turning off business without seeming absorbed by it. During the period in which all these things were occupying his time and attention a lady was visiting at his house and relates that "there was no talk of business, but that she was entertained, taken to drive," and received every attention.

Mr. Hull much enjoyed the practice of law, and, though he gave it up as a calling, his real estate business sometimes gave him important cases of his own, which he himself conducted. In 1872 he wrote: "I have spent the entire week in court watching the R.R. Co. in its efforts to appropriate by condemnation. . . . . They have not reached our Block 34 and if our cases are not disposed of soon I don't know but I shall resume the practice of the law, for the old love returns and breaks out all over me." From all the evidence that can be obtained it seems clear that Mr. Hull had gifts that would have made him very

successful in the legal profession; but he had equal or greater gifts for business, and he finally devoted himself to the latter.

The writer of these pages saw Mr. Hull only once or twice and does not recall any acquaintance with him, but his remembrance of him corresponds, in some degree, to the following description of him by one who knew him well:

> Mr. Hull was five feet eleven inches in height and seemed taller; of fine proportions, erect and broad shouldered; of most elastic step and motion, with massive head, very fair skin, perfect white teeth, brown hair, beaming, brown eyes, and a mouth where tenderness and mirth softened the expression of unconquerable firmness. Some years later than this he was—as he continued through all the changes wrought by years—the grandest-looking man the writer has seen. There was, moreover, a largeness of nature, a buoyancy, an unspoiled simplicity of heart, an air of being invulnerable to petty annoyances or fears, and of indifference to low aims which made his presence strongly tonic.

It is not impossible that this is the description of a friend prejudiced in his favor, and that one who saw him once or twice without really knowing him would receive a slightly different impression of him; but he certainly was of a striking and imposing appearance. He would have attracted attention in any company. There was about him an air of distinction, and it is not too much to say of him that his abilities were as pronounced as his appearance suggested they would be.

I have called Mr. Hull an unusual man. He was more than that. He was uniquely unusual. He cannot be classified. He was *sui generis*. There was no one like him.

The first Sunday after he arrived in Chicago in 1846, without means and without employment, he found his way to the old log jail in the courthouse square that he might meet, instruct, and encourage any prisoners he might find there. The authorities refused him admission. Not being the sort of man to be daunted by difficulties he spoke to the imprisoned men through a hole in the door, gave them a message of encouragement, and promised to return the following Sunday. How soon the doors were opened to him does not appear, but his Sunday visits continued. Then and ever afterward he took a deep interest in criminals. He became known as their friend. While men were confined he visited, taught, sympathized with, and encouraged them, and when they were released advised them, helped them, and found employment for them. After the Bridewell was built he made his way to it every Sunday morning for many years and gave systematic moral and religious instruction to the inmates. These visits continued until the destruction of the Bridewell by fire in 1871, soon after which his

business took him to Baltimore for some years and later to other places, where the same work was done by him for many years thereafter. Dr. Collyer, the well-known pastor of the Unitarian Church on the North Side, Chicago, wrote of Mr. Hull:

> I've got a collegiate pastor, if that is the right name. He preaches for nothing and "finds" himself; also, to some extent finds his congregation, and altogether, for a poor church in want of cheap but most capital preaching, is as desirable a man as can be found. He called and settled himself and this is the way he did it. Two or three years ago I began to notice him in church. He always came late, always appeared as if he had been running, got in generally as sermon time came, and so—as I knew no facts to account for this peculiarity—I naturally got up a theory—that he was one of your modern philosophers, who had got beyond such trifles as prayer and singing—not to mention the Bible lesson—intended to get in just when what the Scotch sexton called the "preleemoneeries" were over, but being in addition to his other excellencies a superb sleeper, especially of a Sunday morning, rather overdid it every time, and so had to run for it. It is no matter how I found out my mistake and that I had a colleague. What I have to repeat is a sketch of one of his sermons. In laying out work for the Liberal Christian League, started in Unity Church a short while ago, one committee was to see after the cause and cure of intemperance, and my friend was put on it. When they met it was found this man's little finger was thicker than all their loins upon that question. It was determined therefore to ask him to speak to the church. He spoke on Sunday night and the first sentence in his address cleared up the mystery of his being late at meeting. He said: "I came to this city twenty-one years ago. The day after I arrived I went to visit the public schools and the prison. On the Sunday I went to the Bridewell and spoke to the inmates —a custom I've kept up steadily down to eleven o'clock this morning." For the last eight years he has been absent from his post only a dozen times. Every Sunday morning he goes to the Bridewell bright and early, has his meeting, gets through about eleven, and then has to run to reach church in time for the sermon.

For a time about twenty teachers labored with him in the Bridewell, but gradually all dropped off till John V. Farwell and Mr. Hull alone were left to divide the work between them.

Mr. Hull did not preach to the prisoners. He spoke to them on such subjects as,

> "Fate and Luck," on "Self-Reliance," on "Compensation," on "Law," on "Poverty," on "Secrets," as wisely and well as if judges and savants sat before him, not as if they were branded men. If he referred to their past it was to say, for instance, "My mission among you is not to pry into your antecedents, not to talk of what has taken place heretofore. For, we are dead as to yesterday and not born as to tomorrow. I am here to talk to you of today. We must take advantage of today to learn lessons which will benefit us when tomorrow comes." He implored them to "be men all over—head, heart, will, and conscience."

In the Baltimore prison, where for years he continued the same sort of work, he said to audiences: "Not a man in Maryland is poorer than

I was twenty years ago. I had not so much as would buy a cracker for my wife and child. Will you change your condition when you emerge from here?" He told them to come and see him on their release, and he would do what he could for them. They were fed, lodged, helped. Mr. Hull became known as "The Prisoners' Friend." He was sometimes imposed upon, once robbed by men he had befriended in prison, yet many times he had the joy of knowing he had encouraged and helped men to a new start and a better and happier life.

He began this self-denying and heroic service and continued it through the years when fortune smiled upon him and he was a man of large wealth, because he felt that it was a work to which God had called him.

His interest was not confined to inmates of prisons. He was just as deeply and sincerely interested in the victims of intemperance. He was sometimes called the "Father" of the Washingtonian Home. This refuge for the intemperate was founded in Chicago in 1863. Its aim was to reclaim and save. Mr. Hull is said to have been the first contributor to its funds. When it was organized, with some of the leading men of the city among its trustees, he was made chairman of the Board. Lots were purchased and a building erected on Madison Street looking north on Union Park. At the end of five years, in 1868, Mr. Hull wrote:

> When I stated at the opening of the last anniversary exercises at the Washingtonian Home that at the Anniversary of this year the association should be free from debt, I was told by several directors that the promise was too great, that it would be impossible to pay the debts in one year. . . . . I have been censured for reducing the number of inmates and for enforcing such rigid and ceaseless economy, but I now offer in defense of my program $20,000 worth of unencumbered real estate, $4,000 worth of furniture, and a state endowment, which, together with the regular income of the institution . . . . will maintain an average of seventy-five patients. I have labored fully five years to get the home into this condition. It has done good work and will be a great blessing in the future. May I not at the end of this year cease to be its father and turn my attention to some other enterprise? I desire to do something for the colored people . . . . of the South.

Prisoners, drunkards, emancipated slaves—these three classes seem to have offered a rather large field for the philanthropic labors of a man of business; but they were far from exhausting the sympathies of this quite extraordinary man. I find him nowhere so attractive as in the interest he manifested in newsboys and bootblacks. He not only conducted a very large real estate business but grew rich in doing it. The glimpses we get of the circumstances under which he carried it on make us wonder

how he did it at all; for it was in his office that he gathered the bootblacks and newsboys and there became their friend, instructor, and financial adviser and helper. "For many years the apple barrel, crackerbox, and store of gingerbread stood open to the fraternity, as well as to the ex-convict and other unfortunates, and they were emptied fast, as the personal entries show. One item I have noted of $13, on one day for gingerbread alone." Many a hungry newsboy who had heard the rumor thrust his face inside the door and asked, "Be this Hull's Hash House?" Mr. Hull brought in benches to accommodate his visitors. In the evening, with the help of the ladies of his family, he taught the boys arithmetic, singing, and the like. The list of these pupils and wards showed so often the residence "nowheres" that he was moved to help them to their first lodging-house. This was one of the beginnings of the Chicago Newsboys' Home.

Their liability to "get broke" at times led to his establishment of a loan fund. Not only in Chicago, but in Baltimore, where he spent several years, his office was the headquarters of these waifs of the street. Incidents like the following happened, without doubt hundreds of times:

> Three newsboys are playing marbles under the table, and a little Italian matchseller is drying her clothes at the heater. She has lost ten cents and dare not go home. I will make her cash account right. How much children do suffer! Is there no remedy? One of the boys under the table is extremely cross-eyed, ill shaped, chews tobacco, cheats, lies, swears, and is generally devilish. I hardly know how to manage the little fellow, but I believe I am gaining on him. He is sharp in business and hardly ever gets broke. When he does fail I give him money enough to buy a new stock. Today one of my smallest boys came in entirely "strapped." I gave him four cents and induced "cross-eyes" to loan him one. He bought ten penny papers, paid off the loan and has nine cents for the evening trade. My ill-fated boy has no confidence in anybody, and he would not let the money go out of his hand until I promised to repay it if Jack did not. Maybe I can reach him in this way, induce him to make loans to the other boys until he has *faith*.

And this was a man involved in vast transactions, conducting a great business in half a dozen cities, and accumulating a fortune! The story of this man's life is well-nigh incredible, and I have not exhausted the record of his philanthropic interest.

His heart went out toward the emancipated colored men. The Civil War was hardly over before he began to make his plans to help them. The scene of his most prolonged and ambitious effort was Savannah, Georgia. Shanties not worth $50.00 were rented to negro families for $10.00 a month. "No one would sell a lot to them." Mr. Hull bought tracts of land in the outskirts of the city and began to

encourage colored men to buy and build and own their own homes. It is said that he gained the respect and good-will of prominent business men and citizens of the city and state. An assistant in his office writes:

He began with the very poorest and most ignorant. Scarcely a man to whom he sold a lot this first winter (1869–70) had a dollar when he made his purchase. But with the loan of courage and money from Mr. Hull many got up comfortable cottages. . . . . Mr. Robt. C.——when Mr. Hull met him on the street and took him to his office, had not a dollar; his old coat and pants hung in strips and were skewered together with wooden pins. . . . . Mr. Hull helped him with his own hands to build the little house. . . . . Shortly after R. C. was earning $60 per month, his daughter was in school, his wife well dressed, and the house enlarged. . . . . Mr. Hull went one morning, a mile from the office, paint pot in hand, to R. C.'s house and painted the front door and casing before R. C. was up. Paints, a brush, and lime were offered to all who would paint or whitewash their houses and fences. They were advised how to purchase and repair their shoes and clothes, and when he showed them how to use the trowel, the hammer, and the paint brush his energy showed them how to put three days' work into one. No payments were required till the lumber and workmen's bills were paid, then weekly or monthly installments, often less than the man's previous house rent, were expected. . . . . Before spring he had the pleasure of seeing about thirty families in their own homes. A long college vacation enabled his daughter to spend the winter, as she did once again, zealously helping him. At other times the cousin, Miss Helen Culver, did the same. Indeed these ladies . . . . whether there or elsewhere, were his main dependence, working in the same spirit with him. In 1871 two night schools were established, one at the office with 365 names on the roll, five nights a week, taught three nights by Mr. Hull and Miss Culver alone; the other two, with the assistance of Mr. Hull's local agent, who the first three nights conducted another school in the suburbs. The schools were free and all necessary implements were furnished.

This most philanthropic missionary work resulted in "the first free colored school ever established in the state." Mr. Hull in telling of the meeting which established this school wrote: "Mr. Robt. C.—— in his black broad-cloth suit, as Chairman of the meeting and President of the Board of Education, has greatly changed in appearance since you first saw him. . . . . Miss Culver reports 91 houses on these places." In January, 1872, he wrote:

Our schools are prosperous. . . . . The office is closely seated with short benches that we stow away during the day, but we are not able to accommodate all that come. There are more than three hundred names on the roll and a clamor for new admissions. The schools increase the labor of the enterprise very much, but it is all most cheerfully borne. Miss Culver and Mr. T. work at the business during the day and five nights each week in the school. The school is one of the best thoughts in our work here.

He also worked five nights in the school each week. I call attention again to this man of large wealth and this cultivated woman, Miss Culver, toiling all day in the business of helping these poor and ignorant

black men to acquire a piece of ground and a home of their own and then give their evenings to teaching them and their children.

This work for colored people became a permanent part of Mr. Hull's business in Savannah and other southern cities. As a result of it many hundreds of families in Savannah alone owned their homes. The time came when one of the city papers stated that a larger proportion of blacks than of whites own their homes in Savannah, and a larger proportion than anywhere else in the South.

Mr. Hull wrote in 1878: "I have always had faith in a division of property. I have tried to bring a slice of the earth within the reach of the poorest family. This I have done as far as possible." And again in 1880 he wrote:

> Can paupers be good citizens? Can a landless people be patriotic? Is it safe for a nation to allow the masses of the people to remain non-landholders? Is not land the natural heritage of the tiller of the soil? If he cannot own a homestead, will he not become a restless, troublesome citizen? . . . . Land is the natural wealth of a nation and when it is not distributed discontent and revolution will come.

It was these convictions that determined and directed the life-business of Mr. Hull. In the choice of the business he would follow and in the conduct of it he was moved by philanthropy and patriotism, both alike sincere and enlightened. I find no other explanation of his extraordinary career. He did not fall into that business by accident. He had a profession for which he had prepared himself at great cost, and for success in which his prospects were unusually bright. He loved it and deliberately left it, left it for a business to which he felt called by convictions he did not wish to resist. That business was in its nature the same which we have seen him conducting in Savannah. The Savannah enterprize was only an illustration on a small scale of the work to which he gave his life for thirty-five years.

That work was to encourage and assist poor men, laboring-men, to become property owners, to secure homes of their own. For their own sake and for the sake of their country he wanted to help them to become landholders and householders. After living for a time in a house on the corner of State and Adams streets, Chicago, and later on the site of the old Chamber of Commerce, corner of Washington and La Salle streets, in 1855–56 he built a handsome house on the block at the corner of Polk and Halsted streets, the old Hull homestead, which later became a part of that famous Chicago institution, Hull-House.

In *Twenty Years at Hull-House* Miss Jane Addams writes:

> Sunday afternoon in the early spring (1889) on the way to a Bohemian Mission in the carriage of one of its founders, we passed a fine old house standing well back from the street, surrounded on three sides by a broad piazza which was supported by wooden pillars of exceptionally fine Corinthian design and proportion. I was so attracted by the house that I set forth to visit it the very next day.

This was the old Hull homestead which, by the death of his wife and children, had ceased to be a home and had passed to business uses. Miss Addams found that the lower part of it was being used for offices and storerooms in connection with a factory back of it. "Before it had been occupied by the factory it had sheltered a second-hand furniture store, and at one time the Little Sisters of the Poor had used it it for a home for the aged."

The tract of land on which Mr. Hull built his home, acquired in 1854, was one of the first purchases he made in beginning the great enterprise of his life. It was followed in the course of years by many others in various parts of the city. These subdivisions, about twenty in all, he divided up into small lots and sold to poor men who wished to build homes, or he built the houses and sold them the houses and lots on easy terms. He conducted active campaigns among them to persuade them to make the great venture of becoming owners of their homes. He achieved immediate and large success and was encouraged to extend his operations. In 1856 he was thirty-six years old. He had little capital and slight business experience. Young, of a sanguine disposition, urged on by high hopes of accomplishing a great mission, and encouraged by large temporary success, he apparently went to the limit of his credit in purchasing lands and making new subdivisions in Chicago. In the midst of these very large operations he was overtaken and overwhelmed by the disastrous panic of 1857. Mr. Colbert, in *Chicago and the Great Conflagration*, says:

> The effects on the real estate market were fearful, and the building business suffered correspondingly. The depreciation of prices in corner lots was great in the winter of 1857, but it was much greater in 1858 and 1859, as payments matured which could not be met. A large proportion of the real estate in the city had been bought on "canal time," one-quarter down and the balance in one, two, and three years. The purchasers had depended on a continual advance in values to meet those payments and found that they could not even sell at a ruinous sacrifice. Great numbers of workers left the city for want of employment, and those who remained were obliged to go into narrowed quarters to reduce expenses. This caused a great many residences and stores to be vacated and brought about a reduction in rents on those still occupied, which impoverished even those who were able to hold on to their property.

Many hundreds of lots and houses were abandoned by those who had made only partial payments, and the holders of mortgages needed no snap-judgment to enable them to take possession. A stop was at once put to the erection of buildings. Several blocks were left unfinished for years and some were never finished by the original owners.

This panic brought down on Mr. Hull an avalanche of debt. A business associate of after years writes: "He held a large amount of unencumbered property, but his outstanding notes for later purchases amounted, I think he has said, to $1,500,000—more than the whole would bring at the current valuation." He was urged by his creditors and lawyers to go into bankruptcy, but he abhorred repudiation of debts in all its forms and refused to get rid of his obligations in any other way than their payment in full. He struggled on under crushing burdens, selling at almost any sacrifice, getting his notes extended, and at the end of five years was able to write:

I have now my business matters in shape so that I can see my way clear through them. Within the last twelve months I have paid nearly $400,000 of my indebtedness. I sold rather more than $1,000,000 worth of real estate in order to pay that sum. I owe about $150,000 still, which I am endeavoring to pay.

This struggle lasted nearly or quite ten years before he freed himself from debt and once more got fairly on his feet. He often said that those ten years took the hair off his head.

They may well have done this, for in addition to these business disasters they brought him the most grievous domestic afflictions. The youngest of his three children, Louis Kossouth, born in 1852, died in childhood. In 1860, in the darkest days of his struggle against bankruptcy, he lost his wife. The oldest child was a son, Charles Morley. He entered the first University of Chicago in 1862 and graduated in 1866, just as he was entering manhood. He was a fine, capable, promising youth from whom his father hoped great things. In the fall of 1866 Chicago was visited with an epidemic of cholera, and the bright young life was ended in the course of a single day. A daughter remained, Fredrika Bremer, amiable, devout, talented. She was in full sympathy with her father's work and aided him in it; she was a student, traveled abroad, was given every advantage, and was most dear to her father's heart. She was his comfort and strength during the dark decade from 1857 to 1867 and lived until 1874.

During the dark years of combined bereavement and commercial disaster one great piece of good fortune came to Mr. Hull. His cousin Miss Helen Culver became a member of his family and eventually an associate in his business. Her childhood had been spent in Cat-

taragus County, New York, only a few miles from the village where Mr. Hull passed his early years.

After graduating from Randolph, New York, Academy she had migrated to Sycamore, Illinois, where for a year she conducted a private school. In 1854 she became principal of one of the primary schools of Chicago and continued to teach, advancing to the grammar and high school, until 1861. Forming a close friendship with Mrs. Hull she was constrained by that lady, who saw her own death drawing near in 1860, to promise to give up her teaching and assume the care of the children so soon to be left without a mother. This promise she faithfully kept, abandoned a profession in which she was most successful, and took charge of Mr. Hull's household. The call of patriotism took her in 1863 to Murfreesboro, Tennessee, where for some time she represented the United States Sanitary Commission in the military hospitals. Her genius for business soon revealed itself to Mr. Hull, and she became his business adviser and associate. Few men ever had a more competent one, a fact which he lost no opportunity to recognize. In reviewing the past in a letter to her dated December 20, 1874, he wrote:

> Our work closes its minority today. It is twenty-one years since we bought block six, corner Polk Street and Center Avenue. The old organization is still working on the same principle as at its birth. . . . . It has done a large work, and is capable of increase almost without limit. As far as I know, and to the best of my knowledge and belief, this is the only effort ever made to benefit and permanently elevate the poor generally, without contribution or taxation. It has behind it an idea or principle, which, if put in general operation, would entirely abolish pauperism and nearly uproot crime.
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> The intention of the enterprise is simply to distribute the unoccupied and now waste lands among the poor, and aid in their improvement. Upon the carrying out of this idea depends the general welfare of the whole people, and the stability of our government. The popular religion of the times, aided by our charitable institutions and benevolent associations, cannot counterbalance the mischievous results of concentrating the wealth of the country in a comparatively few families. If this process of concentration goes on extensively the poor will join in riot (their revolution) and level down from the top, by destroying the property of the rich. Our idea is to *level up from the bottom*, by giving the poor a fair chance to rise.
>
> The great success of the undertaking is largely due to your energy, your steady, persistent labor, and your never-failing faith. You have stood hard at the helm, when I was almost tempted to go in out of the storm. Your keen womanly instinct and long-range spiritual vision caught the glimmer of the lighthouse, in the mist beyond my sight, at the end of the pier. Without your faith the work must have failed. I bless you; God will and the poor ought to.

Their joint work was conducted in many parts of the country. Miss Culver was with him in Savannah, where, as has been already

told, she toiled for the success of the enterprise literally day and night. Shortly after 1871 Mr. Hull established the business in Baltimore, where he spent much of his time for the next ten or twelve years, Miss Culver managing the manifold operations in Chicago. The business was extended to other parts of the country and was remarkably successful. Many thousands of poor men secured homes of their own, and Mr. Hull became more and more prosperous. The great object he had in mind was accomplished. The home owners, having a stake in the country, became more patriotic, desirable citizens. They added appreciably to the strength and solidarity of the Republic.

Inevitably, however, this question suggests itself: How did it happen that a business the objects of which were altruistic, philanthropic, patriotic, made its projector rich? There are two or three answers to this question. It was conducted on business principles. Mr. Hull did not believe that the way to help the poor was to give them something for nothing, to dispense charity to them. He wrote in 1877: "Gifts and loans demoralize and weaken the poor; they need tonics; their salvation is in providing for themselves. Work and economy are the needs of the poor." He believed that every man should pay par value for every dollar he got. His aim in life was to help the poor to help themselves. He expected them to pay full value for what he sold them. He did everything he could to enable them to do this. He encouraged them in industry and economy, gave them ample time to make payments, took no snap judgments on them, but insisted, for their sake as well as his own, that they should faithfully observe their covenants with him.

This does not account, however, for his own ultimate success in full. There was another element in the explanation. It was this. He had an extraordinary perception of real estate values. He knew when and where to buy and make an investment profitable. In 1868 he wrote from Nebraska:

> I worked five days at Lincoln, "among the real estate," and one day for the benefit of the Church and Sabbath-school. I purchased forty acres adjoining the city on the south, ten acres extending within twelve hundred feet of the Capitol grounds on the east, and twenty acres near the University square adjoining the city on the north and eleven lots at the state sale.

The next year he visited Lincoln again and wrote:

> I have been here at the state sale of lots and lands; the property has sold readily and at good prices. . . . . The prices are a large advance over those of the fall sale, in some localities *several hundred per cent more.*

Such things as this explain his prosperity. In 1882, writing from Baltimore, he gave, without intending to do so, a luminous explanation of his business success:

> How differently men see. . . . . Two neighbors on Sunday afternoon wander into the suburbs of the city for an airing, and come upon an open block of ground. The one says he would like to have it as a pasture for his horse. The other calculates carefully its distance from the center of the city, and sees that the main avenue, when extended, will run through this ground. On Monday he buys it. Soon he gets the avenue extended, puts up a block of brown-stone fronts and makes a fortune, while his neighbor is still hunting a pasture for his horse.

It was this sort of prevision that led Mr. Hull to make purchases in Chicago of prairie lands through which such business streets as Halsted later ran. It was this sort of prevision as to land values that, while he was pursuing aims of noble altruism, led Mr. Hull to fortune.

The closing years of his life were shadowed by an insidious disease that did not incapacitate him for business but gave him assurance that he had not long to live. He busied himself in his affairs in various parts of the country. "He disregarded physicians' warnings that he must rest, met suffering, when it came, with heightened cheer and attentiveness to others, and so forbore all notice of it that near friends half doubted the marks of sickness which they saw." To one of these friends he wrote in December, 1886:

> For your sake I wish your commission to me to be healed could be executed. But I think it cannot be done. I made up my mind some time ago that the thorn in my side is permanent, that it cannot be removed, and the less said about it the better. It ought to make me more patient and make me do better work.

He continued in the business harness, as he had desired to do, to the last. A sudden and, to his friends, quite unexpected change in his malady resulted in his death in Houston, Texas, February 12, 1889, just before his sixty-ninth birthday.

Mr. Hull left an estate of some millions of dollars. It had been accumulated during the period of Miss Culver's association with him in business. She had shared, perhaps equally with him, in the success that had been achieved. She had a perfect understanding of his purposes and plans. She sympathized with his ideals. There was no one else to whom he could bequeath the business with any hope of its continuing. He had unbounded confidence in her loyalty and ability. He was perfectly assured that she would make such use of the estate as he would approve, and he recognized the fact that she had had so large a part in acquiring it that it belonged to her as much as to him.

It fell therefore quite naturally to her, and the business, after his death, went on as before.

Mr. Hull regarded Chicago as his home, but his widely extended business kept him in other cities most of the time during the last twenty-two years of his life. The writer of this sketch is not able, from any personal acquaintance, to speak of his characteristics. He said of himself in 1868: "Want of education, unfavorable associations in early life, a resolute struggle with poverty, and an unconquerable will have brought me to this age with unpleasant characteristics."

Those who knew him best, however, said:

> No notice of Mr. Hull would be complete which did not mention the radiant breakfast-table face, the regal courtesy of home, where an unkind or indifferent word or look was unknown. . . . . His character was positive. His faults were virtues carried to excess. . . . . His characteristics were all strongly marked. He had indomitable will, dauntless courage, absolute self-mastery, tireless persistence, patience, unqualified truthfulness and integrity, and the utmost openness and frankness in all relations, together with constantly bubbling humor and tenderness. He neither felt nor affected reserve regarding his emotions, laughing and weeping as readily as a child. . . . . He passed through a strenuous business career entirely free from rancor. . . . . Unusual as were his intellect and his energy—his benignity and all-embracing benevolence were his most marked traits—not the less so that his views and methods sometimes differed from those of other benevolent persons.

In line with the last clause of this quotation it may be said that Mr. Hull was deeply and sincerely religious, but in his religion also he differed from others. His whole life seems to show that he possessed the spirit of Jesus which is the essence of true religion, but he was far from holding the views he supposed the "orthodox" cherished.

One most interesting incident in Mr. Hull's life, not yet mentioned, belongs just here. Toward its end he published a book which he called *Reflections from a Busy Life*. I regret that it was not *Reminiscences of a Busy Life*, but it was what the title indicates—reflections. The reminiscences are valuable, but they are few and far between in the 320 pages of the book. The reflections seem to be excerpts from his letters—letters written for the most part to members of his family. They touch upon a thousand topics, are often very acute, and make an interesting book. He was an abolitionist who acted for the most part with the Republican party, being at one time mentioned for nomination as lieutenant governor of Illinois. He was a prohibitionist, advocating as early as 1867 what our country now has, national prohibition. He believed in woman suffrage when few others had thought of it.

He had pronounced opinions on the best way to help the poor, saying:

All charities, public and private, for the support of the poor, increase pauperism. They are nurseries of poverty and crime. If they were all blotted out of existence at once, our vast, idle, worthless population would soon become self supporting. Men cannot be helped by donations. It cripples a man to make him a receiver of favors. Make him work or starve.

Yet he invited his prison audiences to come to him when they were discharged, and they were fed, lodged, helped. At the same time he told them plainly: "If I give a strong, healthy man a dollar before he has earned it I do an injury to his very soul. I have done this hundreds of times, but I now know it was a wrong. I have no right to take away a man's incentive to work and help himself." Mr. Hull thoroughly tested both ways of helping the poor. His office was for years the recognized feeding-place of the hungry, with constant wholesale provision for them. His cellar was filled with coal which the needy were invited to take. The scale of his steady outlays, at one period of his life, is illustrated by the payment of $95 at a time for hauling coal for the poor. He came through long experience to feel strongly that the only way really to help a man in need was to help him to help himself.

Mr. Hull had very pronounced views on theology. He attended Dr. Robert Collyer's Unitarian Church, was an admirer of Professor David Swing, and sympathized strongly with Dr. H. W. Thomas in his separation from the Methodist church. He had no use for what he understood to be orthodox views. In the *Reflections* he gave frequent expression to his views on questions of theology. In 1876 he wrote:

Teach men everywhere that the Universe is governed by law, and that the doctrine of substitution is a fable, and that there is no such thing as the forgiveness of sins; that our highest good demands that wrong doers should suffer, and thereby be made wiser and better; that we are now building day by day for the future, and that neither angels nor God can lift us out of ourselves, that grace and growth are elements of the soul, and never can be external.

In particular he combated the doctrines of substitution and the forgiveness of sins; and yet he writes: "Our Father in heaven is fast becoming to me a substantial, unseen, unchanging, quiet reality, beyond whose influence and parental care no child can wander. All are His, and none can ultimately be lost." Again he writes on faith: "There is promised to those who believe that their names shall be written in the Book of Life; blessed believers. Those who believe nothing, have no faith, hope for no future, must travel a dreary, dusty road."

In the later years of his life Mr. Hull became a trustee of the first University of Chicago and a vice-president of the Board of Trustees. It will be recalled that his son was a graduate of that institution. Mr. Hull became so much interested in the University that he arranged for a considerable bequest to it, and it was not until the institution had closed its doors finally in 1886 that these benevolent provisions were changed. Almost immediately after Mr. Hull's death Miss Culver began to form benevolent plans for the use of the estate which she knew would be approved by him. The first of these plans resulted in the organization of that world-famous institution Hull-House. Miss Jane Addams began her settlement work in 1889, the year of Mr. Hull's death. Miss Culver recognized the value and promise of that work and in 1890 gave the settlement a lease of the house and the lots on which it stood, rent free for thirty years. The settlement took the name Hull-House, and a few years later Miss Culver gave the property to the Hull-House Association and has added from time to time contributions aggregating about $170,000. To all this she has added her personal services as one of the trustees of the Association. Her gifts to good causes have been widely distibuted, amounting since Mr. Hull's death to more than $600,000 in addition to the great donation now to be mentioned.

At a meeting of the trustees of the University of Chicago held December 19, 1895, President Harper submitted a letter from Miss Culver in which she said:

> It has long been my purpose to set aside a portion of my estate to be used in perpetuity for the benefit of humanity. The most serious hindrance to the immediate fulfillment of the purpose was the difficulty of selecting an agency to which I could entrust the execution of my wishes. After careful consideration I concluded that the strongest guaranties of permanent and efficient administration would be assured if the property were entrusted to the University of Chicago. Having reached this decision without consulting the University authorities, I communicated it to President Harper, with the request that he would call on me to confer concerning the details of my plan. After further consideration, I now wish to present to the University of Chicago property valued at $1,000,000. . . . . The whole gift shall be devoted to the increase and spread of knowledge within the field of the biological sciences. . . . . Among the motives prompting this gift is the desire to carry out the ideas and to honor the memory of Mr. Charles J. Hull, who was for a considerable time a member of the Board of Trustees of the Old University of Chicago. I think it appropriate, therefore, to add the condition, that, wherever it is suitable, the name of Mr. Hull shall be used in designation of the buildings erected and of the endowments set apart in accordance with the terms of this gift.

The property deeded to the University by Miss Culver consisted of a large number of pieces of real estate, some of it vacant, but most of it improved with dwellings, or with buildings used for business purposes. These properties, as they were sold, did not always realize the prices anticipated and the generous donor from time to time added considerable sums to her original donation, these sums aggregating $253,700. From July 1, 1897, to June 30, 1913, the net income of the Fund was added to the principal. This addition amounted to $294,201.34.

Four biological laboratories were erected: Botany, Zoölogy, Anatomy, and Physiology, forming an attractive quadrangle, the four buildings being connected by cloisters. These four laboratories are thus in effect under a single roof. Their cost, including equipment was $340,000, and was borne by the Helen Culver Fund. At the time this is written, the Fund, including the cost of the buildings, amounts to above $1,100,000, about $800,000 being endowment. The laboratories are called the Hull Biological Laboratories.

The University has not restricted its work in biology to the resources provided by the Helen Culver Fund. When, on account of the growth of the institution, the four laboratories of the Biological Group became inadequate to meet the demand for space, the Howard Taylor Ricketts Laboratory was built and equipped from other resources, at a cost of $60,000, for the use of the Departments of Pathology and of Hygiene and Bacteriology. While the income from the Fund amounts to about $35,000, the University expends above $150,000 annually in conducting the work of the biological departments. About a thousand different students are enrolled each year. More than three hundred of these are pursuing graduate courses.

A member of the staff writes:

> Besides providing a place where many thousand students have taken undergraduate courses in biology and thus prepared themselves for the study of medicine and other useful work, these laboratories have provided opportunity for the training of investigators who are devoting their lives to the advancement of science. Two hundred and forty-two students have here done work which has led to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy [March, 1919]. Each one of these has accomplished some piece of original investigation.
>
> Very many investigators [more than a hundred are named] have found in the group of buildings around Hull Court the means of conducting extended researches which have constituted definite advances in our knowledge of biological, including medical, science.

Among these is Dr. Alexis Carrel, who began here the series of researches on surgery of the blood vessels and transplantation of organs which later resulted in the award to him of the Nobel prize, and who in the Great War made discoveries in the treatment of wounds which are recognized as of the highest importance.

The Hull Biological Laboratories were dedicated on July 2, 1897. In presenting them to the University, Miss Culver, after referring to the desire of some strenuous natures that, as a result of their lives, power might "be transmitted to succeeding generations and an immortality of beneficent influence be secured," went on to say:

> It was in obedience to such a driving power that provision for these buildings was made. Since it has fallen to me to conclude the work of another, you will not think it intrusive if I refer to the character and aim of the real donor. During a lifetime of close association with Mr. Hull I have known him as a man of tenacious purpose, of inextinguishable enthusiasm, and above all things dominated by a desire to help his kind. Much of his time for fifty years was spent in close contact with those most needing inspiration and help. He had also profound convictions regarding the best basis for social development in our country, and these directed the energies of his life. Looking toward the close of activity, it was for many years his unchanging desire that a part of his estate should be administered directly for the public benefit. Many plans were discussed between us. And when he was called away, before he could see the work begun, I am glad to know that he did not doubt that some part of his purpose would be carried out. He would have shared our joy in this great University, could he have foreseen its early creation. And it would have been a greater pleasure could he have known the wide diffusion of its benefits sought by its management. . . . .
>
> I have believed that I should not do better than to name, as his heirs and representatives, those lovers of light, who, in all generations and from all ranks, give their years to search for truth, and especially those forms of inquiry which explore the Creator's will, as expressed in the laws of life and the means of rendering lives more sound and wholesome.

This sketch began with a boy orphaned, poor, illiterate, his youth passed under the most unpromising conditions. It has been an extraordinary story of intellectual and spiritual development and philanthropic service, ending in large material prosperity. It has been the high privilege and noble service of Helen Culver to discover and with splendid munificence to employ the means through which from Charles J. Hull's life "power may be transmitted to succeeding generations and an immortality of beneficent influence be secured."

MRS. PERMELIA BROWN

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

At a meeting of the University Board of Trustees held September 21, 1909, the Business Manager announced that he had received notice of a bequest left to the institution by Permelia Brown. Who Permelia Brown was no one knew. No one had ever heard of her. Indeed such was the ignorance concerning her that her first name appeared on the records as "Parmelia." No one knew whether she had been married or unmarried, but the impression was that she had been a spinster. The only thing known of her was that she had been a resident of Chicago, and that her death revealed the fact that she had made a will constituting the University of Chicago her residuary legatee. Nothing more would ever have been known about her by the University but for the circumstance that the will was immediately attacked in the courts. Everthing connected with her life that appears in this sketch was disclosed by the testimony brought out in the various trials of the case as it progressed from the probate court through the circuit and appellate courts, where, after nearly five years of litigation, the case came to an end, the will having been sustained in all the courts.

The will had given the larger part of the estate to relatives and to certain friends who had been particularly serviceable to Mrs. Brown in her old age, and continued as follows: "After the payment of all the foregoing bequests and legacies, all the rest and residue of my estate that remains after my executor, hereinafter named, has paid all the foregoing legacies which may not have lapsed, I give, devise and bequeath unto the University of Chicago . . . . " to establish the Permelia Brown Aid Fund. It then went on to provide that the income of the fund received by the University should be used in assisting American-born girls, students in the University in meeting the expenses of their course of study. It further provided that such students might be assisted for four years, but not longer than four years.

Who then was Permelia Brown? These biographical sketches are written that the benefactors of the University of Chicago may not, as the years pass, be forgotten and become merely names of the unknown. It is desired that their life-story shall be preserved as a part of the history of the University itself. Nothing is known of Permelia Brown's parents or of her place of birth. All that can be said is that

the approximate time of her birth was the year 1822, and that the place was probably somewhere in Canada, or possibly in northern New York or northern Vermont. She had, in her childhood, no advantages whatever of education and probably never went to school a day in her life. One might well conclude that her earliest years were passed in the Canadian wilderness, and a hundred years ago much of Canada was a wilderness where schools were unknown. The first real glimpse to be had of her reveals a child of fourteen or fifteen years of age, and that glimpse is of real interest and significance. She was in the city of Montreal. She must have been well grown, with an appearance of maturity beyond her years, and not without personal attractions; for it was at that time, when she was only fourteen or fifteen, that James Flood made her his wife. She was quite illiterate, could neither read nor write, and never learned to do either of these things, except that the time came when she could write her own name; but she never found this easy, its accomplishment requiring from three to five minutes or more. Notwithstanding these deficiencies, however, she commanded the respect, confidence, and affection of her husband. James Flood, the husband, was a somewhat superior man. The marriage took place in 1835 or 1836, and not long after, probably during the forties, Flood moved to Chicago. He was a lake man and rose to the command of a ship and was known for many years as Captain Flood. Coming to Chicago in the early days of the city he was wise enough and fortunate enough to secure a home near the center of the business district, at what was at that time, and until the renumbering of the streets, 120 and 122 West Madison Street. This property, of course, never rose in value to anything like the appreciation of real estate still more favorably located, but it was near enough the business center and on a sufficiently good street to become increasingly valuable as time passed, and Captain Flood was wise enough to retain possession of it as long as he lived. He died in 1864 and left all he had to his wife Permelia. With a business sense equal to that of Captain Flood she continued to hold the property and never parted with it. These two small lots constituted the bulk of her estate. She had held them at the time of her death more than sixty years.

Mrs. Flood remained a widow about eleven years and then married John J. Brown, a livery man whose business place was near her home. They were married in 1875, when she was about fifty-two years old. Her second marriage seems to have been as successful as the first. She was sincerely attached to Mr. Brown. He never sought to interfere

with her possession of her property or her management of it, and at his death left his own accumulations to her. He died about 1900, Mrs. Brown being at that time seventy-seven or seventy-eight years old. She lived thereafter a very retired life. Two women friends were much with her, one looking after her house and her personal comfort, the other acting as her secretary and business assistant. She had no interests outside her home and the business of caring for her investments. What she should do with her estate was much on her mind. Like many other persons in her position she made a number of wills. She had no children to provide for and almost no relatives. It was not until 1904, when she was more than eighty years old, that she made her final will. She then called in an attorney and submitted to him detailed instructions and a week later executed her last will and testament, at the same time destroying all former wills that were still in existence. Among the instructions submitted to the attorney who drew this final will was that provision, quoted above, making the University of Chicago the residuary legatee of the estate. She lived many miles from the University, far out on the West Side. She had probably never seen the institution, but she had heard of it so favorably that through it she determined to give to poor young women opportunities to secure those advantages of education which had been denied to her.

During the last years of Mrs. Brown's life she suffered greatly from ill health. For a number of years she did not sleep in a bed but sat night after night in a rocking-chair. Up to the last five years of her life, perhaps indeed to the end, she looked much younger than she was. Two of the three witnesses to her will testified that when they witnessed it they believed her to be sixty or sixty-five years old. She was in fact at that time above eighty. She died in July, 1909, at the age of eighty-six or eighty-seven.

The University received from her estate $26,133.83. This amount has been so invested as to yield an annual income of $1,371.02.

Mrs. Brown was a very humble person. She had no social or educational equipment for a well-rounded, abundant life. She had means indeed, but she practiced the closest economy, denying herself much that she was well able to afford. She apparently long cherished the purpose of conserving and increasing her small estate that she might leave as much as she could to help poor and worthy girls to a richer and fuller life than she herself had lived. This purpose she carried out, so that she did not live in vain. She lived obscurely, but she succeeded in making her life forever fruitful. She achieved an immortality of helpful influence.

GEORGE BURMAN FOSTER

A service in memory of George Burman Foster, Associate Professor of Systematic Theology, 1895–97, Professor of Systematic Theology, 1897–1905, Professor of the Philosophy of Religion, 1905–18, was held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall at 4:30 P.M., Wednesday, January 29, 1919. The Vice-President of the University, James Rowland Angell, presided. The service was opened with prayer by Professor Theodore Gerald Soares, Acting Chaplain of the University. An address "Professor Foster as a Man," was delivered by Professor J. M. Powis Smith. Professor Gerald Birney Smith then read several tributes from Professor Foster's students now holding positions of importance in universities and seminaries. Dr. William Wallace Fenn, Dean of the Harvard Divinity School, Cambridge, Massachusetts, then spoke of Professor Foster as a theologian and Professor James Hayden Tufts spoke of Professor Foster's philosophy of religion. The service concluded with the pronouncement of the benediction by the Acting Chaplain.

PROFESSOR FOSTER AS A MAN

By J. M. POWIS SMITH

It is my good fortune to have known Professor Foster for the last twenty-three years, first as a student in his classes, later as his colleague in a closely related department, and concurrently throughout the whole period as a friend. It is a solemn privilege to lay this wreath upon his tomb.

The concrete facts of Professor Foster's external life do not bulk large. Like most university professors, he lived the quiet life of the spirit. He was born at Alderson, West Virginia, April 2, 1857. He started his college work at Shelton College in that state, but completed his course at West Virginia University, receiving his A.B. in 1883, and A.M. in 1884. He crowned his course at the University by marrying Mary Lyon, the daughter of one of his professors. He had gone to college to equip himself for the work of the ministry, upon which he had already entered. He took theology at Rochester Theological Seminary, graduating in 1887. He served as pastor of the First Baptist Church at Saratoga Springs, New York from 1887–91. He then spent

Photo by Florence M. Hendershot

GEORGE BURMAN FOSTER

a year in Germany at the Universities of Göttingen and Berlin, whence he returned to become Professor of Philosophy in McMaster University, Toronto, where he remained till 1895. He was called thence to the Divinity School of the University of Chicago as Associate Professor of Systematic Theology. He was promoted to a Professorship in the same department in 1897. In 1905 he was transferred from the Divinity School to the Graduate School and made Professor of the Philosophy of Religion. Here he stayed until his untimely death on December 22, 1918.

Few men have been more glowingly praised or more heartily damned. It was inevitably so. There was nothing half way in his make-up. He was an out-and-outer in everything. He had no patience with opportunism in any sphere, and gave it short shrift. He saw clearly the desired goal and made straight for it. Such undeviating directness naturally brought friction between him and less courageous or less clear-sighted people. It is not without significance, however, that few of those who denounced him ever really knew him. No one could come into close contact with him for any length of time without yielding to the charm of his personality. He was endowed not merely with brilliancy of mind, but even more generously with warmth of heart. He gathered up people into the glow of his affections which speedily melted all traces of suspicion and hostility. He had a genuine liking for folks and this naturally called forth from them a corresponding attitude toward himself. Kindness was instinctive and spontaneous with him. He wished to be helpful to his fellow-men. He was clothed with gentleness as with a garment, but it was the gentleness of a strong man. Women and children recognized in him a friend. The oppressed did not appeal to him in vain. He was always ready to enter the lists against iniquity and greed. He was a knightly soul, a splendid demonstration of modern chivalry.

In the best sense of the word, Professor Foster was a simple soul. There was a genuinely child-like quality about him that was irresistibly winning. It was impossible to doubt his earnestness and sincerity. He breathed forth an atmosphere of reality. This simplicity of spirit and genuineness of aim and purpose attracted to him all classes and kinds of people. Into the interests of all he entered with sympathetic and appreciative understanding. He had a broad and generous outlook upon life. In the familiar words of Terence he might have said truly, "Homo sum; humani nihil alienum a me puto." He touched life at many points, and gathered the riches of his spirit in many mines. There was

nothing ascetic or pharisaic in his attitude toward life. He sought the best wherever it was to be found, and he gave forth of his best freely in return. He sought to live an abundant life and to live it to the full.

He was a preacher of unusual power. There was a genuinely prophetic fervor about his message. He felt that he was set for the defence of a free gospel. He was restless under every form of restraint upon freedom of thought and speech. He denounced hypocrisy in every form and pleaded for downright sincerity and purity of motive. His ethical passion, coupled with penetrating spiritual insight and finding expression in richly imaginative and picturesque speech, made the hearing of one of his sermons an unforgettable experience. He combined the old-time oratorical manner with the modern social and religious message in a way to produce most stimulating effects. His hearers might, and often did, dissent—they never slept. Naturally a preacher of such gifts had a wide audience. He could not be confined within the limits of any one church; he belonged to the religious world. He was in demand on every hand and in the most widely divergent communions. In fact, his religious message was called for repeatedly in quarters not supposed to be at all in sympathy with a religious interpretation of life. He was willing to talk religion to any group of people that was willing to listen. And he made religion of compelling interest to many who were not stirred in the slightest degree by the ordinary preaching of the churches.

Professor Foster was through and through a Christian. He deliberately dedicated himself to a life of service and sacrifice. He coveted recognition and appreciation, but he was unwilling to surrender his principles or one jot of his self-respect in order to obtain them. He stood for a generously liberal type of Christianity in a spirit of love, but he was not "too proud to fight" for his ideals. He suffered unspeakably in body and spirit from the buffetings of experience, but he maintained a persistent and reasoned optimism. He surrendered three of his children to the Great Destroyer, and yet wrote bravely and confidently upon "The Function of Death in Human Experience." There was no root of bitterness in him. The death of his son in the military service of his country was directly due to the ruthless ambition of Germany; and yet at my last interview with him in the hospital, he spoke in deprecation of the spirit of vengeance that was then finding expression in many quarters, and expressed the hope that Germany might be given a chance to develop its better self. As a philosopher and student of history he preserved a sane and well-balanced view of life, and never became a faddist. His enthusiasm was eager and contagious for everything new

or old that had in it promise and potency of good, and his enthusiasms were so many that he never remained one-sided in his views or blind to the values appreciated by others. Religion was always his supreme interest. He moved continually in that sphere; he was genuinely and incorruptibly religious. If we may bring an ancient word down to modern times, we may call him a saint. There is no other word that quite does justice to the mystic quality in his experience. He lived as "seeing Him who is invisible." The deepest thing in his life was his will to believe. No man ever had greater occasion to doubt. A man less spiritually minded would have succumbed. Disaster followed disaster with appalling frequency, leaving him "clean forespent"; but from these experiences he came forth with a fresh devotion and a more deeply rooted trust in things eternal.

The woes of life were unable to get the better of Dr. Foster. His spirit soared above them; his courage never failed him. He was bright and cheery among his comrades and did not obtrude upon them his own personal griefs. He was ready to meet every friend upon common ground, and brought with him a never-failing stock of interest and appreciation. He was richly endowed with the saving sense of humor. He could give and take a joke with the best of them. I remember well the glee with which he reported a conversation with one of his colleagues in philosophy. His friend asked him how he went about his writing. Dr. Foster answered to the effect that he read extensively upon his subject, he thought long upon it and then, to use his own words, "I sit down and write like a demon." The friend retorted "That is exactly what some people think." This spirit kept him from taking life too seriously and completely freed him from any suggestion of somber gloom. He had a sane and healthy mind and a wholesome attitude toward the problems of life.

Professor Foster's contribution to the life of the church was of a special kind. Neither in his own local church nor in the church at large was he drafted into service upon boards and committees or burdened with the duties of office. This was in part due to his temperament which did not seek and would not have welcomed activities and honors of this kind. He lived in the realm of thought rather than of action. His expansive soul could not have confined itself within the oppressive limitations of official routine. In quite as large measure, however, it was due to the fact that his mind moved ahead much more rapidly than that of the great mass of the church. He was a pioneer in the field of theological thought and pioneers are always lonely souls. His rapid progress

inevitably subjected him to the suspicions of his brethren. He seemed to them to be undermining the foundations of their faith. In truth, however, he was helping to lay the foundations of a better faith. Friendly criticism and intelligent foresight are indispensable to the church if she is to maintain her hold upon the esteem and confidence of intelligent people. No contribution to the church's efficiency exceeds in value and importance that made by her scholars. A church that muzzles or ignores scholarship speedily sinks into slothful ignorance and unspiritual superstition. It is only through the work of such men as George B. Foster that the church is enabled to keep step with the progress of the ages. They do not sit in her councils, but they break out the paths of thought along which those councils will later follow.

It was in the classroom, however, that Professor Foster did his greatest work. Here he was greeted by large numbers of eager students, drawn thither by his widespread renown and actuated by various motives. Some who "came to scoff remained to pray." Many a man who was losing his grip upon spiritual realities was encouraged and enabled to take a firmer hold by reason of the hours spent in the classroom of this most inspiring teacher. His students came to know him, and to know him was to love him. They understood him and thus called forth his very best. His greatest contribution to them was himself. He revealed himself to them in all the wonderful richness of his nature. They saw constantly his unshakable devotion to the truth and his consuming zeal in its pursuit. His transparent honesty commanded their respect. His ability to push through to the heart of a problem, wasting neither time nor energy upon subsidiary and distracting details, filled them with admiration. The catholicity of his mind and his entire freedom from unreasoning prejudice enlisted their co-operation. Over and around the teacher's enthusiasm for knowledge and permeating the scholar's quest for truth was a fine glow of religion which elevated the whole process into a truly spiritual experience.

The news of Professor Foster's death has brought a sense of personal loss into many lives throughout our land and the lands beyond the seas. Words of profound appreciation have come in from former students in every part of the globe. To many of us life will always be richer and finer because of the interpretative insight and contagious enthusiasm of this great teacher. In the age of social reconstruction upon which we are now embarked and toward which he looked forward eagerly, we shall miss his inspiring co-operation, but be grateful for the memory of his exalted idealism. The workman falls; his work goes on.

PROFESSOR FOSTER AS A THEOLOGIAN

By WILLIAM WALLACE FENN
Dean of the Harvard Divinity School

While I was a minister in Chicago, one of the many greatly appreciated privileges of living in this neighborhood was the frequent opportunity to attend the Sunday vesper services of the University, which at that time were held in the lecture-room of Kent. On one occasion I heard Professor Foster speak from the words of Paul: "I have learned in whatsoever state I am, therein to be content. I have learned how to abound; I have learned how to be abased. In everything and in all things, I have learned the secret, both to be in want and to abound."

The scene is as vivid in my recollection today as if it were of yesterday—the gathering shadows, the tall, spare form of the preacher, partly obscured in gloom, partly illuminated by the lamp at the reading desk; the keen, alert face of the scholar, the wealth of dark hair, brushed back occasionally with an unconscious, meditative gesture. Up to that time I knew him only by sight and by name, as teacher of systematic theology in the Divinity School of the University of Chicago. I came away from that service persuaded that I had listened to the most deeply religious man I had ever heard, and that impression was deepened by subsequent acquaintance, ripening into intimate friendship.

I do not wish to speak of Professor Foster particularly as a theologian this afternoon. What I would say is rather in substance this: that he was the most profoundly, purely, genuinely, religious man that I ever knew. In the case of Professor Foster, unlike that of others, we cannot speak of the religious side of his nature. Religion was not a side of his nature; it was his nature, in its wholeness. All his powers were penetrated and united by the religious spirit, and how rich and manifold that nature was. He was a great scholar. It is not as a personal friend, but as a colleague in the Department of Systematic Theology that I venture to repeat here what I have said elsewhere, both in public and in private, that as a systematic theologian, for breadth and depth of learning, for keenness, vigor, and originality of mind, he had not a peer in the world, unless perhaps it be Troeltsch, and I should underscore the *perhaps*. Certainly in this country, no theologian was anywhere near his equal.

He was also a great teacher. Once, in his classroom, he wrote upon the board a single sentence containing a proposition in theology, and asked one of the students whether he agreed with it. The question started a discussion, which was carried on among the members of the

class, with only an occasional hint or suggestion from Professor Foster. The discussion was interesting, but it seemed to me rather wandering, until ten minutes before the close of the period Professor Foster gathered up the lines of the debate, and then it became evident that throughout, unobtrusively, he had so guided and governed the discussion that its lines had converged precisely at the point where he wished them to converge. It was a triumph of the teacher's art. He was a masterly teacher.

Who can ever forget his pithy wit and genial humor? On one occasion, after listening to a lecture on the caution of Jesus, in which the lecturer declared that Jesus did not believe in casting his pearls before swine, that he had many things to say to the people which they were not prepared to hear, that his practice was to lead them along gently, without offending them, until they should by-and-by be prepared for the larger truth, Professor Foster a day or two later happened to meet the lecturer, who remarked rather pointedly that he was glad he was in the audience, to which Professor Foster replied, "Yes, I was there, and while you were speaking, one question occurred to me, and that was, that if Jesus was precisely the sort of man that you describe, I can't for the life of me see how he ever managed to get crucified." As one of my Harvard colleagues said, when I quoted the remark: "That was ultimate."

Professor Foster's literary style was often obscure and labored, but now and then there came a single short sentence which went to the very heart of the matter and illumined the whole discussion. In the last public address that I heard him give, in Boston, nearly a year ago, he said: "If there was perfection at the beginning, why begin?" And that single sentence said what many a theologian had been trying to say, in his dull fashion, in an elaborate essay or even in a book.

I never shall forget the look on his face and the tone of his voice as he said to me one day while we were walking the streets of Chicago together: "Yes, truth may change, but truthfulness is of eternal worth." What tender humanity he had! With the mighty mind was associated the heart of a child. His passion to be helpful had been referred to. Once while he was spending a week with me on the shore of Cape Ann, he came down one morning with an open letter in his hand and a look of dismay on his face. "Here is a letter," he said, "from a man who has asked me half a dozen questions in theology which it will take me hours to answer, and I don't feel as if I had strength to do it." "Why," I replied, "do you know the man?" "Never heard of him in my life before." "Is he an educated man, who would understand the answers

that you might give?" He looked rather dubiously at the letter and said: "I should judge from his writing that he is a very illiterate person." "Then why should you spend hours of your time in writing page after page to a man who will only misunderstand you and misrepresent you?" "Why," he answered, with the utmost simplicity, "why, but he has asked me the questions." With greater callousness than his, I ventured to suggest a way in which, without putting himself to so great labor, he could at least satisfy his inquirer with due politeness.

So friendly and willing to be helpful to strangers, so simple and trustful in his nature, I often wondered whether he was not taken advantage of by people who presumed upon his kindness or who sought to use him for their own ends.

But if he was thus kind and sympathetic to strangers, what was he to his friends? One dares not speak of the family relations in which his life was happily and securely rooted in mutual helpfulness, confidence, and affection. To those of us who were his friends, the loss is great and irreparable. Sensitive, extraordinarily sensitive, I knew him when contumely was raining upon his head, but I never heard from him one resentful or vindictive word. But he told me with great sorrow only a little less than a year ago, that when his son died in military service, there was only one clergyman in the city of Chicago who wrote him a letter of sympathy, and that was a Jewish rabbi.

These and many other traits of character which, for lack of time, cannot now be described or even mentioned, were united by that religious spirit which was so impressive. That this was not appreciated is sad, but it is not surprising. I fancy that for the failure, his method is in part responsible. It was his way to take a current tendency and follow it relentlessly to its logical conclusion, and then seek to estimate its consequences for the life of the spirit. People supposed that when he was doing this, he was stating his own final conclusion. But with him there was no finality. There were but stages in the pilgrim's progress. He never could have belonged to the cult of the "arrived." The music to which his life was set was the Pilgrim's Chorus.

He said once that it was his habit in the lecture-room to reveal his inmost doubt, in the pulpit to reveal his inmost faith. Indeed, I sometimes wonder whether his own thinking reckoned so fully as it should have done with his own religious life. No man was firmer than he in championing the rights of thought in religion. But I sometimes wonder whether his own thinking took sufficient account of the meaning of his own religious life.

He had the virtues of his ancestry—mountain pioneers. He was passionately devoted to liberty. He had the simplicity, the frankness, the friendliness of the mountaineer. He had the loathing for shams and for their loathsome parents, falsehood and cowardice. These things may have come in part from his pioneer ancestors. But he had a deeper heredity in the spirit which, in all ages, entering into human souls, makes them friends of God and prophets. He was a pilgrim of the eternal, dwelling in tents like the great souls who have preceded him, ever seeking for the city which hath foundations.

GEORGE BURMAN FOSTER

BY JAMES HAYDEN TUFTS
Professor and Head of the Department of Philosophy

It is sometimes possible to separate a man's work as thinker and writer and teacher from his more intimate and personal life. But in the case of Professor Foster this would be extremely difficult. His peculiar power and widespread influence were due largely to the intimate interaction between the world of thought and the life of feeling, between the pursuit of truth and the pressure of humanity's needs. The study of religion was for him the most practical of all tasks.

Born among the West Virginia hills, the son of a farmer, he spent the years until the age of sixteen largely out-of-doors working on the rocky hill farm or hunting the mountains over for ginseng root. The abiding influence of this early environment is suggested by the dedication of his second book, which recalls "the West Virginia hills which stand like sentinels around my childhood's home," and adds the motto *Montani semper liberi*. He was not in later years a lover of the fields and woods, but had rather, as his wife used to tell him a "cathedral mind," but it seems not fanciful to think that this early life among the hills not only strengthened his body for its severe tasks of later years but also made its contribution to elevation of soul and love of freedom.

A passion for books which would get him up long before daybreak to read by the light of the open fire as he lay upon a rug, and which was scarcely comprehensible, even to his open-minded father, showed itself very early and at sixteen he was "given his time" by his father to go away from home for study. His gift for effective speaking enabled him to support himself through fitting school, college, and seminary by preaching.

He brought to the University a twofold training: on the one hand, his work as preacher, both during his years of study and later for five

years at Saratoga, was well adapted to give him knowledge of religious needs and to deepen his naturally kindly and sympathetic spirit; on the other, his year in Germany and three years as teacher of philosophy at McMaster University disclosed new horizons, and introduced him to methods of critical inquiry. The first training was valuable for his chair in theology, the second was important for this but indispensable for his later field of the philosophy of religion. As the work in this latter department was jointly planned Professor George S. Goodspeed would have treated chiefly the history of religion and Professor Foster the philosophy of religion. The death of Professor Goodspeed threw the burden of both these tasks upon Professor Foster. Instruction in the history of religion although at first undertaken with some reluctance, came to be increasingly fascinating as it brought him into contact with a larger range of concrete religious experience. But his training and paramount interests were in the philosophical and psychological problems of religion and in the bearing of these upon the actual religious life of today and tomorrow.

His most substantial publications were his two books: *The Finality of the Christian Religion*, 1905, based on courses of lectures given at the Harvard Summer School of Theology, and *The Function of Religion in Man's Struggle for Existence*, 1909, based on a lecture delivered before the Philosophic Union of the University of California, "dashed off at white heat in about thirty days as a sort of 'by-product.'" Articles were contributed from time to time to the *American Journal of Theology* and other periodicals. The Dudleian Lecture on "Revealed Religion" delivered at Harvard last year is expected to appear in print shortly. An invitation to deliver the Nathaniel William Taylor lectures at the Yale School of Religion had been accepted and "The God-idea" had been tentatively considered for the subject. Lectures on Nietzsche given at the University in the summer of 1917 were written out, but the second volume of his chief work which was begun shortly after the publication of the second edition of his first volume, had never been completed. It is a somewhat interesting fact that with Professor Foster as with many others the occasion which called forth his most conspicuous work was not his regular teaching but an invitation to lecture at another institution. Of his larger book it may well be said that it attracted attention and exerted influence altogether out of proportion to the extent of its circulation. Finally, the meditation on *The Function of Death in Human Experience* published in 1915 in the University of Chicago Sermons is classic in its simplicity of expression and profound in its thought.

Professor Foster's focus of interest and great contribution were not in the field of Philosophy of Religion conceived as a separate general discipline, nor in the specific problems of Christian Theology and Religion which his training as a preacher and his earlier chair in the University naturally tended to make of compelling importance. Rather he aimed to bring to each of these fields the method and data of the other. He aimed to view Christianity in the light of the history of thought and the psychology of experience; he aimed to bring to the general study of religion the personal experience of his own life struggle and of the to him ever fascinating and supremely important personality of the Founder of Christianity. He studied therefore (1) religion as a type of experience, (2) the views of the world and of man which religion implies, and then (3) more definitely the question whether Christianity can be regarded as the ultimate religion—a question which involved in turn the question "What is Christianity?"

The field so conceived was vast. In each of its divisions it had as he viewed it a destructive and a constructive phase. The dead hand of authority which would prevent any scientific inquiry at all must first be removed. Man must be free to use scientific methods or any methods which would lead to truth. Further, the composite structures built in past ages out of religious experiences, crude metaphysics and tribal or imperial law, must be shattered—unless they could be left standing on the definite basis of being regarded simply as great monuments of a past which must not interfere with the needs of building a home for the human spirit of today and tomorrow.

Yet all this work of dissolving authority and setting us free from the past was but preliminary. The constructive phase, of which unfortunately we have only the beginnings in completely worked-out form, was to him the more important as it was of course the more difficult of execution. His philosophical basis he found, not in the idealism which had earlier held sway in Germany and was, when he began to work, predominant in British and American thinking. Nor did he adopt as a whole the method and point of view of the pragmatic movement although he regarded the conception of evolution as crucial in his problem, and says in his preface to the second edition of the *Finality* that this movement presented a new situation which would compel a rewriting of his manuscript for the projected second volume. He turned rather to a philosophy which seeks the essence of religion in the willing and feeling side of experience; which finds escape from naturalism by distinguishing sharply between facts and values; which emphasizes personality as a

spontaneous and creative factor not explained by either mechanism or history; and which finds the possibility of religion in the "eternal values," which, while they "cannot be given and received passively" but must be "created and conquered by the sweat of our brows as we till life's thorny fields," are yet "unattainable by us men of ourselves," and through fountains of creative personalities "stream forth from eternity into the human world."

Students of the philosophy of religion will recognize the quarries from which Professor Foster brought materials for his own structure. But no one can question that this was in a very genuine and vital sense his own. There is a relentless pursuit, a sustained passion, a sweep of thought, which come not to the eclectic chooser, but to him only who has fused all his materials from whatever source gathered in the heat of long and severe intellectual toil.

The key to Professor Foster's contribution and to his power as thinker, teacher, and writer, is found when we inquire "how are we to test either past or future philosophies of religion?" Can we employ a method of deductions from pure reason or of observations by an impartial spectator? Either of these methods would assume that intellectual tests were adequate, yet humanity has always shrunk from trusting implicitly to the intellectual "knowledge about" as an adequate substitute for "acquaintance with" when a practical problem of a supreme value of experience as well as of the meaning of the world is at stake. Professor Foster was convinced that the intellectual has in fact filled too large, or rather, too exclusive a place in the criteria of religion. Religion was for him in part an attitude of personal companionship. This meant that one could understand it only if one were the type of person who made himself capable of companionship with the morally ideal person. In part religion is a matter of the reality which now is, but in part it is also a matter of the reality which is yet in the making and to which the inquirer must make his own contribution. If we ask what is the "essence" of religion or of Christianity we learn that, in Professor Foster's words, "determination of essence is *construction* of essence, since the task is personally conditioned. That is, it is not simply a datum to be received, but a reality to be created ever anew. . . . . The task is not simply scientific, but moral, and thus belongs to man's larger vocation of forming an ethical personality through pain and struggle, perplexity and sorrow."

"Not simply scientific but moral"—the common man may not have formulated his reasons thus, but he has felt that the religious life is

not merely a theory but a belief, a venture. He has been greatly moved by men who have not merely inquired but have themselves thrown their all into the struggle, who have risked not merely external disapproval or pecuniary loss but their own souls. The reason why Professor Foster gripped not only students but men at large was probably not so much because of greater metaphysical acuteness, wider historical research, or even more relentless and single-minded pursuit of truth than some others evidenced, but rather because his views were born in the travail of great personal struggles for freedom, assurance, and personal fulfilment of life. Many who reach the same intellectual conclusions with less of struggle pay the penalty for their own smoother course by leaving their readers and hearers cold. The souls which win their victories of the spirit through passion have a more convincing philosophy. Says the preface to *The Finality of the Christian Religion:*

> The Book is a mirror of the development of the author's own experience; a development, moreover, which has not yet come to a close; a fact which is also mirrored in the book. He believes that a multitude of thoughtful men and women are passing through an experience similar to his own; and that a greater multitude will travel, with bleeding feet, the same *via dolorosa* tomorrow and the day after . . . . to all such the author offers himself as fellow-pilgrim, not without some hope that they may be a little less lonely for his comradeship, a little less bewildered for his guidance, and a little less sorrowful and discouraged for his own joy and hope.

Side by side with this principal interest in the great problem of religion was growing in his later years a broad sympathy with problems of democracy which was finding expression in contributions to the daily press or in sermon and debate. Foster saw that the issues of the war would not be settled with the end of the military campaign. He believed that industrial democracy as well as political democracy must be in the end not only the just, but the stable, basis for society, however slow the process may be through which the readjustment should be made. Nor was this democratic conviction a matter separate from his philosophy of religion. His confidence in the possibility of human nature was for him a part of his general view that the religious possibilities and the moral possibilities of men are not limited to the few. "Human nature's creative power in the world of goodness" he wrote in his *Function of Religion in Man's Struggle for Existence,* "is not limited to the Great Man and the Great Man's influence, but, though graded, is immanent and constant in the race."

The struggle in which he beat his music out was real, and many did not catch the greater swell of harmony but heard only the clashing

chords. He did not regard the issues as merely personal. "I should be a traitor to every poor, half-paid teacher in the backwoods if I did not give free expression to my convictions" he exclaimed at one time. But he found his way; he stood for his convictions with absolutely unfaltering courage; he met misunderstanding and opposition unflinchingly; more he met even severer tests of successive bereavements, and kept gentleness, sweetness, and serenity of spirit. His was a soul that had overcome the world.

In his meditation upon Death Professor Foster has himself framed the test by which he would be judged:

> What of ourselves do we leave behind us for other men, when we must go hence? Is that which we have given to men, is that which we shall leave to men, worth our living for? Are men stronger, truer, freer, because we have lived? Is there a human soul in the world to whom we have been a necessity? Is there someone who has found in us a revelation of God, who has had a vision of the life of God, of the love of God, in and through us? If so, we have known happiness upon the earth, we have fulfilled our calling in life, and death cannot bear witness against us.

NEWMAN MILLER 1871-1919

AN EXPRESSION OF SYMPATHY ON THE DEATH OF NEWMAN MILLER, DIRECTOR OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

READ BY A. C. McFARLAND

At a general meeting of the men and women connected with the University Press the following resolution was adopted and signed by all the members:

"We desire to express our sense of great loss in the death of our former Director, who for so many years strove so successfully to build up the organization of the University Press, until it now ranks as the largest and best-known university press in the country. We recall gratefully how interested he was to have each one of us do his utmost toward the success of the enterprise; how zealous he was for the reputation of the Press; how considerate in times of individual need; and how companionable, courteous, and genial in his personal relations with his associates. And we wish to have it known how deeply we appreciate the spirit of co-operation and the ideals which our Director infused into the organization."

NEWMAN MILLER

BY ERNEST DEWITT BURTON

Newman Miller was one of that large class—that broad stream of men—which the country is constantly contributing to the city and to the institutions of the city. Born in a country village in Michigan, his ambition for an education sent him to Albion College, where he was graduated in 1893. In the same year he came to the University of Chicago as a graduate student in political science and related departments. In the years 1894–98 he was Lecturer in Political Science in the University Extension Division, and in 1896–98 secretary of the Correspondence Department. Leaving the University in 1898, he was for two years owner and editor of a city newspaper in Albion, Michigan, and in 1900 came back to the University as director of the Press. In

NEWMAN MILLER

the eight years since the founding of the University, the Press had had four directors, each of whom after a short experience left it for a less difficult or a more lucrative position. The new Director was destined to occupy his position for eighteen years and a half, and to witness the steady growth of the Press under his guidance to its present assured position of influence and usefulness, not only in the University, but among the great publishing houses of the country.

My relations to Mr. Miller in his position as Director of the Press have been manifold and long continued. Through my relations to various publishing interests of the University and as Director of the Libraries, I have had almost constant occasion for business dealings with Mr. Miller throughout the whole period of his service. In all these matters we were both working for the interests of the University, but as representing different departments of its manifold activities our interests were in a sense opposed, and there was constant opportunity for differences of opinion that might easily have developed in us a sort of antagonism to one another. Out of this experience of many years I wish to bear my testimony to Mr. Miller's fairness of mind, breadth of vision, and the high standards which he maintained for himself and for the Press as a department of the University. My relations with him gave me perhaps a keener sense than most of his colleagues in the University had occasion to acquire of the difficulties of many kinds which Mr. Miller encountered in his eighteen years of service as director of the University Press. Compelled in the nature of the case to talk and to think in terms of profit and loss in the commercial sense of the words, Mr. Miller steadily refused to regard his task or that of the Press as merely or chiefly a commercial one. That which held him to that task in the face of criticisms and discouragements that were inseparable from the nature of the work of the Press was his conviction that that work was essentially educational, and that in administering the affairs of the Press he was making a real contribution to the educational value of the University's work, and so to the forces that were promoting the higher life of the country. It is my deliberate conviction, shared, I am confident, by many of my colleagues who are in a position to have a basis for judgment, that despite all the hindrances and difficulties with which he had to contend, Mr. Miller, by his administration of the Press, made one of the most solid and substantial contributions which has been made by any of us to that great educational force which we call the University. We are all his debtors, and the future will be indebted to him for a very real and material contribution to its welfare.

But to us who knew him personally Mr. Miller was much more than the Director of the Press. He was a friend whom we prized for his genial personal qualities and for his high moral character. Associated with him as I have indicated in the business affairs of the University, living beside him for years as a neighbor, and having traveled with him abroad, I always found him a conscientious gentleman of high moral standards and steady fidelity to them. One of the most beautiful elements of his character, known, I presume, to but few even of his friends, was his tender and constant devotion to his widowed mother. Her only son, he was always concerned for her welfare and her happiness. Almost his last act before he was compelled to take to his bed in what proved to be his last illness, was, though ill himself, to visit his mother in the sanitarium at Elgin.

Mr. Miller was probably not usually thought of among the religious forces of the University or the community. He had not been for many years a member of a Christian church or a regular attendant at church. But I, who knew him better perhaps than some of you, know that the deepest motives of his life were religious. Indisposed, as are so many men today, to speak of that which is deepest, he did not, I think, often discuss the subject of religion. But when he did speak of it, as he sometimes did in conversation with his friends, it was always with frankness, intelligence, and sympathy, and, in years of somewhat close association with him during which we often had occasion to get below the surface of things and in which he disclosed naturally and without intention the motives that governed him, I learned to believe in him as a man soundly and sincerely religious. If that religion was less articulate than in many of the rest of us, perhaps that was partly at least our fault.

It is a simple but a sincere testimony that I would bear to my friend today. I knew him and I loved him. He found his task in life, the way in which he could best serve humanity and the God of humanity. He loved life and the joys of life and he found much joy in life. But he held to his ideals, he did his work with fidelity and success. He has made his contribution to the better world that shall be. We shall cherish his memory as a true man, a loving son and husband, a Christian man who served his generation faithfully and well.

NEWMAN MILLER, FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF A COLLEAGUE IN THE PRESS

By GORDON J. LAING
Professor of Latin and General Editor of the University Press

Of the many admirable qualities in Mr. Miller's character which those who have spoken here today have described, the one which always attracted me most was the poise, the evenness of temper with which he met the trials and tribulations of a publisher's life. He was a publisher and yet he was cheerful and contented. Every profession has its difficulties, but the publisher has more than his share. He stands between the cold and unresponsive public, who to his eyes appear to be interested in anything but books, and the author who happens to know that he has written the very book of which the public stands most urgently in need. It is his task to lead the public to the book on the one hand, while on the other, he must ease the author's pain by plausible explanations of the public's lack of appreciation. This is true of all publishers, and we should stray far from the truth if we beguiled ourselves into believing that the university publisher is exempt from the trials of his fellows. For profundity of learning in author or editor does not always lead to that sweet reasonableness which goes so far to make smooth the rough places of life.

From the day that Mr. Miller became Director he bent all his efforts to the task of making the Press the medium of expression for the highest aims of the University. He realized that if ever he lost sight of this ideal, the institution that he was directing would be a university press in name only. It would follow one or other of those two roads to the dismal swamp down which so many university presses have gone; it would either be the mere print shop of the University—an annex to the administrative offices, printing and distributing circulars, announcements, registers, and reports; or, misled by the lure of possible profits, it would become a purely commercial house, issuing under the protection of the University's name books and pamphlets of a popular character, titles that would sell, works that in the patter of the trade "make a wide appeal"—collections of essays of sloppy literary appreciation or of cheap pseudo-science or of emotional religious propaganda. In a word the Press would be similar to a hundred other publishing concerns, differing from them only in the one detail that it paid no taxes.

To either of these goals the way was downhill, and like all roads tending in that general direction, easy. But Mr. Miller scrupulously

and persistently avoided both of them. He chose the path that led upward, and from first to last clung to his theory that the chief function of the Press was the publication, through books and journals, of the results of research work done either in our own libraries and laboratories or elsewhere. So long as the work was good he saw, just as the editors of our journals and series have always seen, that it did not matter where it was done. From this ideal he never swerved, though he knew quite will that it was not the policy that would make a good showing on the accountants' books; that it was not the policy that would result in his own aggrandizement. It was a difficult position to maintain; how difficult only those who were in close contact with him for years can say. For although the Press is classified as one of the divisions of the University, its success or failure in any given year is too often spoken of in terms of dollars and cents. It is said to have had a "good year" if on all its operations it shows a profit; a "fair year" if it breaks even; a "bad year" if it loses money. I wonder how many of the other departments of the University could stand a similar scrutiny of their expenditures and receipts. I am inclined to think that they would all be found to have had a long run of bad years.

When Mr. Miller identified himself with those who wanted a university press, that is a university press in the strict sense of the term, he knew well that it could never pay; and that in any reckoning which included not only the amount invested in the plant but the subsidies granted by the University for journals and books, a financial loss was inevitable. He knew, moreover, that from year to year he would be called upon to justify this or that investment. "You," he said to me once, "are not the only educator in this plant; I am an educator myself. I have spent most of my life in teaching people what is meant by a university press, and," he added in his whimsical way, "I am not sure that I have ever convinced a single hearer." I hastened to assure him that on this last point at any rate his experience was entirely professorial. On another occasion he said to me: "My understanding is that those who are in control of the University want a university press. This is it. It can never be essentially different. An increase in the subsidies granted by the Board of Trustees for research books and journals can make it a greater university press; a decrease in those subsidies would make it a cramped university press. But in kind it will remain the same."

Mr. Miller attained his ideal. He has given us a real university press. That fact is recognized not only here but in the publishing world at large. During Christmas week I was in New York and called upon several publishers there. One of them, the head of a house that

represents the highest standards in American publishing, said to me: "Do you people in Chicago know that Mr. Miller has given you the most distinctive university press in America? Your press has confined itself to its legitimate field, namely the publication of non-commercial books. That is not, I assure you, true of all the university presses. Some of them are publishing books on all kinds of subjects. Tax-free, they are competing with us who have to pay taxes. The situation is becoming intolerable."

But we do not need the testimony of others to bring us to a realization of the high quality of Mr. Miller's work and the distinction of the press which he created. The facts are familiar to those of us who have heard him discuss his ideals of publishing and who remember with what pride he watched the growing list of scientific publications. They are familiar also to those who have read the reviews of Press books appearing in current periodicals. Reviewers have sometimes failed to understand the subject of a book, but that after all is a normal condition for a reviewer. The significant thing for us to remember today is that of all the reviewers of the hundreds of books published by the Press during Mr. Miller's directorship not one, so far as my knowledge goes, has ever criticized any of them as feeble or trivial or undignified or unworthy of a university press. The imprint of a publishing house comes to have a very definite connotation in the minds of reading men. That the imprint of the University of Chicago Press stands for what is sound, scholarly, scientific, and dignified is due to the jealous vigilance with which Mr. Miller guarded it.

One of the difficulties which Mr. Miller had to meet was lack of money for the publication of research books. The University made generous appropriations from time to time; but not even the University has unlimited funds at its disposal, and many manuscripts, containing the results of research work of members of our own faculty, have remained unpublished. No one, not even the authors themselves, regretted the inability of the Press to publish the books more keenly than Mr. Miller. It may be added that not all the authors of research books that have been published realize how often it was through his efforts that the money was procured.

In the marketing of the books he showed the same energy. The selling of abstruse works of science, theology, and philology is not an easy problem. It is an unfortunate fact that the selling qualities of a book are often in inverse ratio to the scholarship it displays. The general public resents the kind of book that necessitates even the mildest form of cerebral activity. Mr. Miller was fully aware of this, and

was shrewd and resourceful in meeting the situation. He had a horror of routine publication, and made the promotion of every new book the subject of special study. In one way or another he brought that book to the attention of every person and of every library that might by any possibility be interested in it. The highest type of publishing skill is not seen in selling a hundred thousand copies of a novel. It is seen in selling a thousand copies of some technical work of science or philology, or a hundred copies of a doctoral dissertation, and Mr. Miller had that skill.

In internal administration he had the same high ideals of efficiency. His hand was upon everything. For while each of the departments into which he divided the Press had its own head, the departments were so closely interlocked that questions affecting more than one of them were continually arising. These could be settled only by the Director, and it was to the infallible tact which he showed in handling them that the spirit of co-operation referred to in the resolution just read by Mr. McFarland owed its origin. He always had his own opinion, but at the inter-departmental conferences, which were so notable a feature of his administration, he welcomed suggestions by any member of his staff. He believed in the effectiveness of co-operative effort, and the loyal service rendered by all those employed in the plant attest the soundness of his system. Nor was his interest in the members of the Press confined to the heads of the departments. The door of his office, as every employee knew, was always open, and anyone who had a claim or a grievance could always see him and get a fair hearing.

His fine personal qualities have been so well described by the speakers who have preceded me that I need not enumerate them. I knew him from the time that he became Director in 1900 and I knew him intimately from the beginning of my own connection with the Press in 1908. His death has left me with a sense of loss that is with me every day. He was the most companionable of men. He was devoted to his business, and yet he could relax. He carried a heavy load of responsibility, but he was always cheerful. He had one of the most difficult positions on the campus, but he never lost his poise. "Call no man successful till the end," said the old Greek philospher, contemplating the numerous examples of men whose careers ended before their lives were over. But Newman Miller, deeply as we deplore his premature death, we can call successful, for he saw the Press, which was nothing when he came to it, attain a position of distinction in the world, and its fair fame is the legacy which he has left to the University he served so long and loved so well.

THE WILLIAM VAUGHN MOODY COLLECTION OF AMERICAN LITERATURE

By PERCY HOLMES BOYNTON

Early in the winter of 1917 the first gift was made "to begin the purchase of books in American literature" for the University of Chicago library. The donor is Mrs. Francis Neilson, whose interest in the University has not been limited to this support.

When the gift was made, the resources of the library for the study of American literature were beyond the average of any but some of the oldest eastern University libraries. The fact that the successive heads of the history department in Chicago had all been specialists in American history had led to the purchase of the reprints of original narratives and the collections of the historical societies which contain much of the most desirable early material. On the more strictly literary side there were in the neighborhood of two thousand volumes available for the nineteenth century.

The gift of Mrs. Neilson made possible, however, an extensive campaign for the building of a more nearly complete collection. This was pursued on the following lines:

1. Books for which there was immediate need in current graduate courses, a list of two or three hundred which it had not been possible to secure out of the departmental budget. (This necessarily included some items from each of the next three groups.)
2. Books systematically selected to supplement and complete works of, and biographies and criticisms of, the leading forty or fifty American men of letters.
3. Anthologies, collections, special histories of groups, organizations, and literary centers, and also theses and monographs.
4. Important current books, particularly in the fields of poetry, drama, and criticism.
5. Periodical files.

The rough estimate was made that the first five thousand dollars would make possible the purchase of some fifteen hundred books. As a matter of record, however, the lack of general interest among collectors was so marked and the resultant prices were so low that over thirty-five hundred volumnes were secured. A second gift was made in the summer of 1918.

The work has now proceeded to the point where most of the obvious books, sets and editions, in print are in the possession of the library, and the present problem is to secure books of significance which are out of print and which are needed to make complete the works of authors or the collections of earlier fiction, poetry, and drama. Naturally, the policy maintained has been, not to collect books merely for their rarety, which depends largely on the caprice of the wealthy collectors, but to secure material for study, and to regard an exact reprint of an original work as meeting the University library needs. Nevertheless, some interesting original works have been secured. These include not only a good deal of Colonial and early nineteenth-century material which has not been reprinted, but uncollected writings of well-known men of letters; such, for example, as Bryant's poem "The Embargo"; Lowell's "Commencement Poem"; the first edition of Whitman's "Leaves of Grass"; many of the less available titles of Lafcadio Hearne, Joaquin Miller, Bayard Taylor, Stedman, Aldrich, Gilder; and the less expensive first editions of the major poets. Important acquisitions have been made in the periodical field; so that, even now, the majority of the better-known periodicals of secondary interest are available. A recent important purchase is an almost complete file of *The Conservator*, the special journal devoted to the memory and the doctrines of Walt Whitman, the files of which are extremely rare.

Important acquisitions of another sort are steadily being made in the field of the American drama. Some one hundred and fifty works of biography, over three hundred single plays, and probably two hundred volumes which include plays with other works, have already been accumulated. Related to these, also, are important histories of the stage in different cities, collections of dramatic criticism in files and scrap-books (notably that of Hilary Bell, an additional gift of Mr. and Mrs. Neilson), the collections of the Dunlap Society, and the chief periodicals related to the American stage and drama.

Already the resources of the library for research have been very greatly increased, and the prospect for having the best collection in American literature west of New York and Philadelphia is practically assured.

EVENTS: PAST AND FUTURE

THE ONE HUNDRED AND TENTH CONVOCATION

The One Hundred and Tenth Convocation was held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, Tuesday March 18, at 4:30 P.M. The Convocation Address, "The Implications of Democracy," was delivered by Andrew Cunningham McLaughlin, LL.D.

The award of honors included: Harry Albert Singer, Anatomy; Walter Herman Spoenemann, Anatomy; Sister Mary Louis Towner, Romance; Ernest Bloomfield Zeisler, Mathematics and Astronomy. The election of the following students as Associate Members to Sigma Xi was announced: Everett Naughtin Collins, Julius Bahr Kahn, Philena Anne Young. The election of the following students as members of Sigma Xi was announced: Helen Jeanette Allen, Herbert Bell, Clyde John Bollinger, Amando Clemente, Lillie Eichelberger, Dwight Tarbell Ewing, Anant Madhav Gurjar, Arthur Wing Haupt, Marie Agnes Hinrichs, Hikokuro Honda, Jacob Robert Kantor, Helen Lois Koch, Elmira Lodor, George Elmer Miller, Fredric Max Nicholson, Dean Alvin Pack, Hazel Marguerite Schmoll, Arthur Ware Slocom, Karl Theodor Steik, Edward Julius Stieglitz, Perry Daniel Strausbaugh, Harry Benjamin Van Dyke, Chester Keeler Wentworth. The election of the following students to the Beta of Illinois Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa was announced: Luman Elmer Daniels, Ralph Liggett Evans, Winifred Henrietta Franz, Ralph Waldo Gerard, Charles Cassius Greene, Max A. Greenstein, Josephine Moore, Mary Emma Quayle, Sister Mary Louis Towner, Ernest Bloomfield Zeisler.

Honorable Mention for excellence in the work leading to the Certificate of the College of Education: Esther Van Goens. The Bachelor's degree was conferred with honors on the following students: Eva Beatrice Cappetta, Luman Elmer Daniels, Harriet Ruby Ensworth, Ralph Liggett Evans, Winifred Henrietta Franz, Ralph Waldo Gerard, Charles Cassius Greene, Max A. Greenstein, Lawrence Jacques, Helen Brainerd Lay, Josephine Moore, Leonard Stanley Sluzynski, Walter Herman Spoenemann, Sister Mary Louis Towner, Maurice Nathaniel Wallk, S. Marie Williams, Ernest Bloomfield Zeisler. Honors for excellence in particular departments of the Senior Colleges were awarded to the following students: Serena Emma Atchison, Political Economy; Luman Elmer Daniels, Anatomy and Physiology; Harriet Ruby Ensworth, English and General Literature; Ralph Liggett Evans, Chemistry; Minerva Fouts, Household Art; Winifred Henrietta Franz, Chemistry; Ralph Waldo Gerard, Chemistry; Charles Cassius Greene, History and Political Science; Max A. Greenstein, Anatomy and Physiological Chemistry; Helen Brainerd Lay, History of Art; Josephine Moore, Latin and Romance; Herman Bernhard Siems, Chemistry.

Degrees and titles were conferred as follows: *The Colleges:* the certificate of the College of Education, 3; the degree of Bachelor of Arts, 3; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy, 47; the degree of Bachelor of Science, 27; *The Divinity School:* the degree of Master of Arts, 3; the degree of Bachelor of Divinity, 1; the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 1; *The Law School:* the degree of Doctor of Law, 4; *The Graduate Schools of Arts, Literature, and Science:* the degree of Master of Arts, 4; the degree of Master of Science, 4; the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 9. The total number of degrees conferred was 106.

The Convocation Reception, at which Professor and Mrs. McLaughlin were guests of honor, was held in Hutchinson Hall Monday, March 17 from 9:00 to 10:30 P.M. Those in the receiving line were: President and Mrs. Harry Pratt Judson, Professor and Mrs. Andrew Cunningham McLaughlin, and Senator and Mrs. Francis Warner Parker.

The Convocation Prayer Service was held at 10:30 A.M. Sunday, March 16,

in the theater of the Reynolds Club. At 11:00 A.M. in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall the Convocation Religious Service was held. The preacher was Professor C. A. Anderson Scott, D.D., Westminster College, Cambridge, England.

GENERAL ITEMS

The Lowell Centenary was observed when William Gardner Hale, Professor and Head of the Department of Latin, spoke of Lowell, whom he knew intimately at Harvard, and Percy Holmes Boynton, Associate Professor of American Literature, delivered an address on Lowell as an American man of letters.

On the William Vaughn Moody Foundation, Lieutenant Robert Nichols, R.F.A., author of *Ardours and Endurances*, lectured in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, Thursday evening, March 6, on new English poets, especially the late Charles Sorley, Robert Graves, and Siegfried Sassoon.

The Renaissance Society met in the theater of Ida Noyes Hall, March 11, at which meeting Hermann Rosse, head of the Department of Design of the Art Institute of Chicago, delivered an illustrated lecture, "The Stylistic Theater: Retrospects and Speculations." Mr. Rosse's paintings and drawings for stage decoration were on exhibition in Ida Noyes Hall from March 10 to March 19.

Madame Breshkovskaya, "the Grandmother of the Russian Revolution," visited the University Saturday, January 25, speaking in the theater of Ida Noyes Hall and later addressing an overflow meeting.

Professor James Henry Breasted, Chairman of the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures, who is also Director of the Haskell Oriental Museum, is to give two lectures on the William Ellery Hale Lectureship of the National Academy of Sciences at Washington on April 28 and 30. The general subject is "The Origins of Civilization." The subject of the first lecture will be "From the Old Stone Age to the Dawn of Civilization," and of the second, "The Earliest Civilization and Its Transmission to Europe."

Professor Breasted also gives the presidential address before the American Oriental Society, which meets in Philadelphia from April 23 to 26. The subject of the address is "The Emancipation of the Near East and the Resulting Responsibilities and Obligations of American Orientalists."

The University Preachers for the Spring Quarter are as follows:

Professor Albert Parker Fitch, of Amherst College, Amherst, Massachusetts, formerly president of Andover Theological Seminary, spoke on April 6; Reverend Daniel Couve, Chaplain of the French Army, on April 13; and Dr. Cornelius Woelfkin, of the Fifth Avenue Baptist Church, New York City, on April 27.

The first speaker in May will also be Dr. Woelfkin, who will be followed on May 11 and 18 by Dean Charles R. Brown, of the Yale School of Religion, New Haven, Connecticut, and on May 25 by Bishop William Fraser McDowell, of Washington, D.C.

The first speaker in June will also be Bishop McDowell, and the Convocation Preacher for June 8 will be shortly announced.

A notable and artistic gift to the Haskell Oriental Museum at the University of Chicago is just announced by the Director, James Henry Breasted. It is a pair of gold filigree and pearl ear-rings, found at Rah, or ancient Rhages, and stated by the donor to be of the Abbaside dynasty, of some eight hundred years ago. They were presented by His Highness, Malek Mansoor Mirza Shoa-es-Saltenah, son of the late Shah, Muzafer-ed-Din, who gave them to President Harry Pratt Judson, who was recently in Persia as director of the American-Persian Relief Commission, with the request that he transmit them to some American museum.

Under the auspices of the Renaissance Society at the University of Chicago an exhibition of paintings and designs by Hermann Rosse, head of the department of design at the Art Institute of Chicago, was held in the Ida Noyes Hall. Mr. Rosse gave an illustrated lecture before the Renaissance Society on the evening of March 11, his subject being "The Stylistic Theater: Retrospects and Speculations."

At the recent meeting of the Association of American Universities the University of Missouri was elected president, the University of Virginia, vice-president, and the University of Chicago, secretary. For the University of Missouri President Ross Hill will act as president of the Association; President E. A. Alderman will be vice-president; and the secretary for a period of five years will be Professor David A. Robertson, of the University of Chicago.

Professor James Rowland Angell, Dean of the Faculties and Head of the Department of Psychology, has been offered the presidency of the University of Michigan, of which his father was president for thirty-eight years. Dean Angell, who is a graduate of the University of Michigan and of Harvard University, has been associated with the University of Chicago for twenty-five years. He has been president of the American Psychological Association, and is the author of a text on Psychology and of *Chapters from Modern Psychology*. He was appointed Exchange Professor at the Sorbonne, Paris, in 1914.

Dean Angell has been active in war service as a member of the psychology committee of the National Research Council, a member of the Committee on Classification of Personnel in the Army, and an advisory member of the Committee on Education and Special Training, War Department.

Mr. John Galsworthy, the English novelist and playwright, gave a lecture on the William Vaughn Moody Foundation at the University of Chicago on April 9. Mr. Galsworthy recently took part in the James Russell Lowell Centenary in New York City. Among his best-known books and plays are *The Dark Flower*, *The Freelands*, *Justice*, and *The Mob*.

Beginning April 15, Dr. A. V. Williams Jackson, Professor of Indo-Iranian Languages in Columbia University, gave a series of three lectures on the same foundation, the first discussing the "Beginnings of Persian Poetry and the Great Epic"; the second, April 16, "Persian Mystic and Lyric Poetry"; and the third, April 17, "Romantic Verse, Including Ballad Poetry of Lands to the East of Persia." Professor Jackson was a member of the American-Persian Relief Commission of which President Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago, was director.

The John Ruskin Centenary (Ruskin was born February 8, 1819) was celebrated on Friday afternoon, February 7. Addresses were delivered by James Weber Linn, Associate Professor of English, "Ruskin as a Writer and Prophet," and Walter Sargent, Professor of Art Education, "Ruskin as a Critic of Art."

Richard Green Moulton, Head of the Department of General Literature, will deliver the Phi Beta Kappa address in June. Professor Moulton completes this year twenty-seven years of service at the University.

On the general committee to have in charge the proposed "hero memorial" to Chicago's soldiers fallen in the war are the following members of the University of Chicago Faculty:

President Harry Pratt Judson; Dean Shailer Mathews, of the Divinity School; Dean Herbert Lockwood Willett, of the Disciples' Divinity House; Lieutenant Colonel Frank Billings, Professor of Medicine; Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch, Professor of Rabbinical Literature and Philosophy; Dr. Frank W. Gunsaulus, Professorial Lecturer on Practical Theology; and Lorado Taft, Professorial Lecturer on the History of Art.

On the same committee are the following members from the University Board of Trustees:

Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson, a member of the subcommittee to appoint a larger general committee, Mr. Martin A. Ryerson, Mr. Julius Rosenwald, Mr. Harold F. McCormick, and Mr. Harold H. Swift. Mr. Hutchinson is also chairman of the organization committee for Chicago's Roosevelt memorial.

Charles Manning Child, Professor of Zoölogy in the University of Chicago, was elected president of the American Society of Zoölogists at its meeting at Baltimore with the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

Dr. John Wildman Moncrief, Associate Professor of Church History, is to retire this year after a service in the Divinity School of twenty-five years. Professor Moncrief, a graduate of Denison University, was for a number of years

professor of Greek at Franklin College, Indiana, and received the honorary degree of Doctor of Divinity from Denison University in 1904.

At the meeting of the Mathematical Association of America Professor Herbert Ellsworth Slaught, of the Department of Mathematics, was elected president of the association.

Professor Leonard Eugene Dickson, of the Department of Mathematics, at the annual meeting of the American Mathematical Society gave the address as retiring president, his subject being "Mathematics in War Perspective."

Among the publications of the University of Chicago Press during the Winter Quarter was the famous address of Professor George Burman Foster on *The Function of Death in Human Experience.* It first appeared in the *University of Chicago Sermons* and has had a wide reading as one of the most solacing and beautiful presentations of the great facts of death and life by the author of *The Finality of the Christian Religion.* Another significant religious publication issued in this quarter was *A Survey of Religious Education in the Local Church* by Professor William C. Bower, of Transylvania College. The book presents a full treatment of the survey method, thus making it available for the use of those who have had no previous experience in social or educational surveys. A third timely publication in the religious field was *The Gospel in the Light of the Great War* by President Ozora S. Davis, of the Chicago Theological Seminary, which is especially designed for the minister who recognizes the opportunities of the pulpit in an age which the writer believes is the most challenging in the history of the Christian church.

During the Winter Quarter also two volumes in philosophy and science were published, the first being *Cultural Reality,* by Dr. Florian Znaniecki, who is now Lecturer on Polish History and Institutions in the University of Chicago, but who is also widely known in Poland as a writer on philosophical subjects and vice-president of the Psychological Society of Warsaw. Dr. Znaniecki's aim in this new volume has been to formulate a conception of reality which will be useful for social and historical sciences and helpful for cultural progress. The volume in science, *The Living Cycads,* is by Professor Charles Joseph Chamberlain, of the Department of Botany at the University of Chicago, who after investigations extending over fifteen years that necessitated trips to Mexico, Cuba, Australia, and Africa, completed this latest contribution to the "University of Chicago Science Series."

Other publications during the quarter include *Carmina Latina,* selected and edited by Professor Roy C. Flickinger, of Northwestern University, who includes in his collection not only old favorites but novelties in Latin versions of patriotic songs; *The Classical Journal General Index,* Vols. I–XIII, covering the years 1905–18; *Papers of the Bibliographical Society of America,* Vol. XII, Nos. 3–4, which constitute a Willard Fiske memorial; and *Sociology and Education, Papers and Proceedings of the American Sociological Society,* Vol. XIII, which includes contributions from Charles H. Cooley, Robert E. Park, John M. Gillette, and Edward Alsworth Ross.

The Ellen H. Richards Memorial Fellowship, offered jointly by the Trustees of the Memorial Fund and the University of Chicago, has been awarded to Elizabeth Wilhelmina Miller. Her academic record is as follows: University of Chicago, Ph.B., 1914; A.M., 1915; Instructor in Home Economics, State Normal College, Mayville, North Dakota, 1912–13; Instructor in Home Economics, University of Chicago, 1915–18; Associate Professor and Head of Household Science Department, Iowa State College of Agriculture, 1918–19. Miss Miller did editorial work in the Home Economics Division of the Food Administration, Washington, D.C., during the autumn of 1917. She is joint author with Mr. Emery and Mr. Boynton of a *Laboratory Manual of Applied Chemistry* and has published the following articles: "The Solution of Antimony from Enameled Cooking Utensils," "A Home-Made Soybran Meal for Diabetics" (with Lydia Roberts), and "Problems in Cake Making" (with Bernice Allen). Miss Miller is to spend the year 1919–20 in carrying on nutrition studies in the University of Chicago.

Dean Leon Carroll Marshall, of the School of Commerce and Administation,

who has been in the war service of the government as Director of Industrial Relations, United States Shipping Board, recently represented the director-general of the Emergency Fleet Corporation in the dispute at Seattle between the shipbuilders and the 25,000 union employees of the shipyards. Dean Marshall held a series of conferences with yard owners, striking workers, and international officers of various unions who were present to investigate the situation. As one of the results of the conferences the striking employees returned to work.

Dean Shailer Mathews, of the Divinity School has been engaged to give a series of lectures in June before the Summer Assembly for Preachers at Dallas, Texas. The assembly is the first summer school of theology of the Southern Methodist University.

Professor George Herbert Mead, of the Department of Philosophy, who is also president of the City Club of Chicago, gave an address at the symposium of the patrons' department of the National Education Association on February 27. The general subject of the symposium was "Lay Contributions to Educational Progress," and Professor Mead's subject was "The Interplay between the School and the Community."

Professor William Gardner Hale, Head of the Department of the Latin Language and Literature, gave an address at the James Russell Lowell Centenary celebrated in Harper Assemble Room on February 26. As a former student of Lowell at Harvard, Professor Hale gave an intimate sketch of the poet's life and personality. Lowell's career as a poet, essayist, and diplomat was discussed by Percy Holmes Boynton, Associate Professor of American literature.

Professor Julius Stieglitz, Chairman of the Department of Chemistry, has been appointed chairman of the Committee on Publication of Compendia of Chemical Literature for the American Chemical Society.

ATTENDANCE IN SPRING QUARTER, 1919

	Men	Women	Total 1919	Men	Women	Total 1918	Total Gain	Total Loss
I. The Departments of Arts, Literature, and Science:								
1. The Graduate Schools—								
Arts and Literature	125	122	247	102	135	237	.....	.....
Science	157	69	226	141	66	207	.....	.....
Total	282	191	473	243	201	444	29	.....
2. The Colleges—								
Senior	362	371	733	295	377	672	.....	.....
Junior	537	412	949	445	409	854	.....	.....
Unclassified	40	40	80	22	43	65	.....	.....
Total	939	823	1,762	762	829	1,591	171	.....
Total Arts, Literature, and Science	1,221	1,014	2,235	1,005	1,030	2,035	200	.....
II. The Professional Schools:								
1. Divinity School—	(4 dup.)			(2 dup.)				
Graduate	82	12	94	86	10	96	.....	.....
Unclassified	12	2	14	8	1	9	.....	.....
English Theological Seminary	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chicago Theological Seminary	22	1	23	24	3	27	.....	.....
Total	116	15	131	118	14	132	.....	1
*2. The Courses in Medicine—								
Graduate	55	15	70	64	12	76	.....	.....
Senior	103	18	121	113	6	119	.....	.....
Junior	3	.....	3	10	1	11	.....	.....
Unclassified	8	.....	8	3	.....	3	.....	.....
Total	169	33	202	190	19	209	.....	7
3. The Law School—								
Graduate	73	8	81	38	8	46	.....	.....
*Senior	22	2	24	32	3	35	.....	.....
Candidates for LL.B.	28	2	30	21	3	24	.....	.....
Unclassified	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	123	12	135	91	14	105	30	.....
4. The College of Education	13	189	202	5	271	276	.....	74
5. The School of Commerce and Administration	166	80	246	106	52	158	88	.....
Total Professional	587	329	916	510	370	880	36	.....
Total University	1,808	1,343	3,151	1,515	1,400	2,915	236	.....
*Deduct for Duplications	195	35	230	224	22	246	.....	.....
Net totals	1,613	1,308	2,921	1,291	1,378	2,669	252	.....

THE AWARD OF FELLOWSHIPS 1919-20

EDWARD STOWE AKELEY A.B., University of South Dakota, 1915	Physics
HARLAND HILL ALLEN A.B., Colorado Teachers College, 1916 A.M., *ibid.*, 1917	Political Economy
HELEN JEANETTE ALLEN A.B., Vassar College, 1913	Zoölogy
WILLIAM BIRGER ANDERSON Ph.B., University of Chicago, 1918	Romance
JACOB FRANK BALZER A.B., Carleton College, 1910 A.M., University of Chicago, 1913	New Testament
THEODORE H. BAST A.B., Ripon College, 1912	Anatomy
NORVIL BEEMAN A.B., Oberlin College, 1915	Chemistry
CHARLES HENRY BEHRE, JR. S.B., University of Chicago, 1918	Geology
HAROLD BENNETT A.B., University of Toronto, 1915	Latin
VIOLA PAULA BLACKBURN A.B., Wellesley College, 1918	English
EDWARD BLANKENSTEIN S.B., University of Chicago, 1918	Physics
LLOYD E. BLAUCH A.B., Goshen College, 1916 A.M., University of Chicago, 1917	Education
BLANCHE ELIZABETH MAE BROTHERTON A.B., Smith College, 1915	Latin
EDWARD TANKARD BROWNE A.B., University of Virginia, 1915 A.M., *ibid.*, 1917	Mathematics
ALPHONSE O. BRUNGARDT Ph.B., University of Chicago, 1918	Political Economy
ADOLF AUGUST BRUX Concordia College, 1913 Concordia Seminary, 1917	Old Testament
ARMAND BURKE Ph.B., University of Chicago, 1918	Philosophy
FRED ALLEN CONRAD A.B., Goshen College, 1912	Sociology
MORRIS ALBERT COPELAND A.B., Amherst College, 1917	Political Economy

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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

VOLUME V JULY 1919 NUMBER 3

THE TURNING-POINT IN THE HISTORY OF CULTURE[1]

BY RICHARD GREEN MOULTON, PH.D.
Professor of Literary Theory and Interpretation; Head of the Department of General Literature

I understand the word "culture" to mean the share of the individual in the common civilization. What at one time passed for culture—the consciousness of highbrow superiority which seemed to say "Get away from me, I have better taste than thou"—has long been turned over to the comic papers. Even high personal gifts do not make culture if they remain personal. They are rather to be described by a favorite word in school advertisements of a generation ago, which for so much a year offered education and *accomplishments*. To make culture in the true sense there must be some interaction between the individual and the community to which he belongs; for the mass we speak of civilization, for the individual, culture. A classic passage in the writings of an eloquent nineteenth-century preacher proposes to arrange types of character under the three headings "Having," "Doing," "Being." The label "Having" interprets itself: we think at once of the man defined by the large account that stands in the world's ledger in his name, who is in the main a center of attraction for the drifting of capital, important only as an indication of commodities, for whom length of days is desirable because "the longer a man lies out at interest the greater must be the accumulation." There is no place for culture here. The life of "Doing" may involve great qualities and a devotion of conscious service; but

[1] Delivered on the occasion of the One Hundred and Eleventh Convocation of the University held in Frank Dickinson Bartlett Gymnasium, June 10, 1919.

this is a contribution to civilization. It is when the civilization reacts upon the individual that we get the man defined by the word "Being," and it is here that the term culture is in place. I use the words "common civilization" because of the tendency of civilizations to combine and group together. In the millennium perhaps the world may present a single civilization. But it is still a long, long way to the millennium, although I am simple enough to believe that this consummation has been brought measurably nearer by the world-crisis of the last few years, and the co-operation of master minds in the statesmanship that will meet it, a co-operation in which a president of the United States has played a great part. Meanwhile we have in the world many different civilizations, and these civilizations may blend in groups. A common culture helps to identify the group, and the grouped civilizations react upon the individuals who belong to them.

Now, another person, speaking in some distant part of the world, on a topic similar to mine, might have a very different message to deliver. But speaking as I am to you who hear me I would say that our common civilization is descended from two civilizations of the ancient world, the union of which has made us what we are. All our art, science, politics—all that we call the secular—is a continuation of processes begun and carried to high maturity by the Hellenic civilization, reflected in the Greek and Latin literatures. For it is in its literature that every civilization stands reflected. But when we turn to our spiritual nature, we find no kinship with the Greeks; our spiritual nature is an inheritance from the ancient Hebraic civilization, which is reflected in the body of literature we call the Bible. These two civilizations, Greek and Hebrew, developed independently. They were, surely, the most splendid product of antiquity. It is irresistible to borrow an expression from Dryden's famous, though rather cheap, epigram on Homer, Virgil, and Milton:

> The force of nature could no further go:
> To make a third she joined the former two.

Thus, from our place in history, it would seem that the turning-point in the evolution of our culture lies in the meeting of Hellenic and Hebraic.

It needs a large historic perspective to call this a turning-point. It was in reality a long process. Three times, in different ages of the world, the two civilizations came together.

Greek and Hebrew came together the first time when the conquests of Alexander the Great forced Hellenic culture upon all civilization, and thus upon the exclusive Hebrew people. After protracted and heroic

resistance Palestine was gradually hellenized, while the new city of Alexandria, named as record of the conquests, became a seat of Judaism hardly second to Palestine. This was not a fusion, but a conscious union, in men's minds, of two diverse elements. In the literature that follows, notably in the New Testament, the antithesis of Jew and Greek recurs as regularly as, in other ages, the antithesis of aristocrat and democrat, or the antithesis of capital and labor. Paul becomes the hero of this historic epoch, because in him a complete education in Greek and Hebrew culture was combined with the dignity of Roman citizenship.

The second union of Greek and Hebrew was on a larger scale. Antiquity culminates in the Roman Empire: Roman as to the adhesive force, Greek as to its mental sphere. And the stage enlarges to take in Europe. This Roman Empire became Christianized: so the process is described by those who speak from the religious or ecclesiastical point of view; from our literary viewpoint we would rather say that Hellenism was being gradually hebraized. The fusion was thorough, and created the great epoch we call the Middle Ages. We moderns think of Europe as a geographical area in which many different nations live. The Europe of the Middle Ages was a unity: a single state, its feudal system culminating in a Roman emperor; a single church, of which the Pope of Rome was the brain, and the clergy a system of nerves connecting every point with the central mind. Yet forces of disintegration were at work, and the Roman Empire changed gradually into the Romance world. The common language of education and religion, Latin or Roman, was being adulterated by local dialects into new languages. Some of these we still call the Romance languages, because in these the Roman element was stronger than the local influence. In other cases—English, German—the native element was stronger than the Roman factor; but the process was the same. And I like to fancy the English language as likely to gain over all others in the end because, in this blend of Latin intellectuality and native force of sentiment, the balance in the English language was the most perfect. Thus out of mediaeval Europe, by this disintegrating force of language, there arise the modern peoples of Europe, and make a common group of civilizations, all having their roots in the union of Hellenic and Hebraic, all drawn into the unity of mediaevalism, all diverging to create, not separate literatures, but rather a common literature in so many national dresses, like a single language with its dialectical variations.

But if the fusion was complete, the two component elements entered into it each in a highly imperfect state. Centuries of war had dissipated

Greek culture, until in the latter part of the Middle Ages we find scholars reading their Aristotle in Latin translations of Arabic translations from the original Greek. And Hebraic culture enters into mediaevalism only in a very imperfect form. No doubt these are called the great centuries of the Christian church; but they are so called by those who write from the ecclesiastical viewpoint. The literature which is the basis of Christianity, the Bible, played a very small part in mediaeval history. There is no need for detailed proof of this: it stands reflected in a picturesque anecdote related of himself by Martin Luther. A university student, nearing the close of his university course, he wanders into his university library and begins turning over books; to his surprise he comes for the first time upon the Bible, and finds it a varied literature instead of a collection of devotional passages familiar to him all his life. To cap one instance with another, Carlstadt tells us how he was a Doctor of Theology before he had ever read the Bible. An imperfect Hellenism and an imperfect Hebraism had been fused into a mediaevalism which, notwithstanding its many features of greatness, appears from our point of view a crude culture.

There was needed then a third combination of the original Greek and Hebrew civilizations. What brought the Middle Ages to a close was the entry of barbarism in Turkish form into the East: Greek scholars transferred themselves and their libraries to Western Europe. It was now complete manuscripts of Greek literature that were carried into the heart of Europe, with Greek scholars to interpret them. With these came the whole of the Hebrew Old Testament and Greek New Testament, with a Budaeus and an Erasmus to act as interpreters. It was thus Hellenism and Hebraism in their fulness that now were fused together. The consciousness of the times took the proud name of the Renaissance—the new birth of civilization. Now, it is precisely from this movement named the Renaissance that the modern world dates itself.

I fear that some of my hearers will think I have been unloading upon them some very elementary history such as might well be spared from an occasion like this. But one thing that experience in teaching has impressed upon me is how in certain studies it is the elements which forever need emphasizing. The latest discoveries may be trusted to take care of themselves. What defines a man is, not what he knows, but what of his knowledge he elects to emphasize. The value of such historic survey as we have attempted is that it gives us at once a coherent past for the culture we are studying. We know the old saying that, in

setting out to make yourself a noble character, you must begin by carefully selecting your grandfather. In the present case the history surveyed has provided a coherent ancestry for our modern culture; it is the union of Hellenic with Hebraic. Here I can shelter myself under the authority of a great historian. There is a special satisfaction in quoting Sir John Seeley in this connection, for no one will suspect Seeley of being actuated by considerations of religious orthodoxy in what he says as to the place in the evolution of education occupied by the Bible. I am old enough to remember—I was a schoolboy at the time—the appearance of Seeley's first book, that stirred all England in a way in which it has never been stirred by any other one book. I remember how a certain public personage, recognized as a pillar of orthodoxy, pronounced Seeley's work "the vilest book ever vomited from the mouth of hell"; to which a lively writer of newspaper criticism made the rejoinder, that if this book should ever get down to hell, hell would not retain it long on its stomach. So it is not theological prepossessions that actuate this Seeley when he laments the "lack of ideal and plan" in modern education.

> No adequate doctrine of civilization is taught among us. . . . . So long as churches were efficient, this idea of the continuity of civilization was kept before the general mind. A grand outline of God's dealing with the human race, drawn from the Bible and the church doctrine, a sort of map of history, was possessed by all alike. Are we aware what bewilderment must have arisen when this is no longer the case, when those old outlines grow unserviceable, but no new map is furnished?

The phrase, "a sort of map of history," aptly puts the case. The wildest radical, inclined to chop off the branch on which he sits from the parent trunk, cannot help knowing that "things happened" before his day. Not separate "things," not even separate strands of things, each a subject for a specialist investigator, but the varied strands twining together into a coherent evolution—this is what is needed as a starting-point for our culture. And thus this historic fusion of Hellenic and Hebraic civilizations, with the study side by side of the Hellenic and Biblical literatures, should always be emphasized as the foundation upon which the whole study of the humanities must rest.

Let us turn to the subject of education. I am not proposing any technical analysis; but in the light of our foundation proposition let us survey the educational situation. For education seems to be a natural mediator between civilization and culture. The matter of education involves the various civilizations of the world presented in concentrated moments; with such civilizations education confronts a succession of individual minds open to impressions.

At the outset of such a survey one point strikes us very favorably. One of the two constituent elements of our culture has gained full educational recognition. Hellenic literature, under the suggestive name of classical studies, stands in the forefront of modern schemes of education; a tradition has established itself that without classical studies there can be no liberal education. Satisfactory as this may seem, we are at the same time bound to notice the strong antagonism to this tradition which has in recent times made itself felt, and which comes, not at all from persons indifferent to education, but from those who claim to be educational reformers.

On this whole subject two distinct comments may be made. In part, I believe the opposition to classics rests upon a misunderstanding. It comes often from those who wish to emphasize the natural and political sciences, the exploits of which in modern times have been so magnificent. But the objectors fail to see that these very natural and political sciences are themselves to be credited to the Hellenic factor in our civilization. When, after the long parenthesis of the Middle Ages, philosophy resumes its course, the modern philosophy and science go on just where Greek philosophy and science had left off. The most eminent modern scientist will hardly rank himself in mental equipment superior to a Plato or an Aristotle; and the logic of his philosophy has been elaborated for him by the Greeks of old. But early in the modern world two details emerge, so slight at first as to seem accidents, so wide-reaching in effect as to transform all future philosophy. One is the invention of printing; the other, still less noticeable at the time, was the invention of scientific experiment. In the ancient world each philosopher, or school of philosophy, sought to solve the whole universe at once. In the modern world, with printing to perpetuate all records, the individual philosopher disappears; all mankind through all generations becomes a co-operation for discovering truth. Co-operation means specialization; philosophy passes out of literature into a new medium of technical science; as the results of technical sciences are put together, philosophy comes back into literature, the natural medium for integrated thought. So with the other new element in philosophy: instead of being limited, as ancient philosophy was, to observation of what *happened* to occur, experimental philosophy makes its observations on material specially arranged for this observation. The pace of scientific advance has thus been enormously accelerated. It is a wise child that knows its own father: and it is not strange that rapidly progressing science should forget that in origin it is a continuation of Hellenic philosophy, transformed almost

out of recognition by accidents of its own momentum. Moreover, we may ask, is the practice of modern science up to the standard of its theory, as these are viewed from the standpoint of culture? The stage of specialization is fully emphasized. Is there due care for the integration of specialized knowledge and its appearance in the medium of literature, which appeals directly to culture? As it appears to an outsider, the factory of science makes complete provision for the construction of separate parts; the stage of assembling these separate parts is left to take its chances.

But there is another kind of antagonism to classical study which depreciates the study altogether and regards it as an anachronism in the modern practical world. However unconvincing the arguments may seem, we are forced to admit that, with the freedom of many generations left to Greek and Latin, they have failed to attract a considerable body of those who have been brought into contact with them. My own belief is that this is largely due to an error of policy in the traditional direction of such studies, by which the classics have been presented *solely* in the original languages. I lay the emphasis on the word "solely," for of course to study Greek and Latin masterpieces in Greek and Latin is the natural thing to do, and the goal which everyone desires if he can attain it. Indeed, at the beginning of the classical tradition there was no error at all. At that period there was plenty of time to learn Latin and Greek, and the literature in these languages had the highest cultural value. But as time went on the subjects demanding a place in education were multiplying, and the proportion of the whole that could be devoted to classical studies must proportionately diminish. This diminution of the time given to classical study was a diminution in the literary element of the study, which cannot begin until facility has been attained in reading the languages. A schoolboy confronting Homer with a dictionary in one hand, a grammar in the other, and wanting a third hand to hold a book of annotations, may gain something from his discipline; but what he gains will hardly be literary culture. Thus, while education in general was being enriched, the cultural value of classical study as a whole was being impoverished: it remained all it had been for the advanced student, but for the crowd of boys and girls at school who never got beyond the earlier stages their classical culture ended before it had really begun. All this might be avoided if the principle were established that in every stage of classical study, elementary or advanced, reading in the original and reading in translation should be kept side by side. I can speak from experience. A large

part of my work for the last thirty years has consisted in presenting classical epic and drama to students, many of whom know no Greek or Latin, while others have had only the Latin drill of their school days. I wish I could convey to you the appreciative interest with which—of course after the requisite preparatory explanations—these foreign masterpieces have been received and the naïve astonishment expressed at finding Greek life and Greek poetic form natural and convincing. "If only I had had this presented to me in English in my schooldays, what a difference it would have made!" This remark I have heard scores of times.

Thus I believe it quite possible that classical study may regain its hold on the practical world. There is a solid foundation for this belief from an analogous case. In the biblical field the first idea was that the original Hebrew and Greek must be jealously guarded; that translation into the vulgar tongue would mean religious anarchy. The faith of a few pioneers led the way; and the vernacular Bible appeared, and in a brief period it captured a whole civilization. Of course, there must always remain the difference in kind between the knowledge of the expert and the knowledge of the general reader; both are covered by the word "culture."

But if we turn from all this to the other of the two factors in our civilization, and from this point of view study the situation, we get a very different result. In the scheme of study followed in our universities, and in the school studies influenced by these, Hebraic culture and the literature of the Bible are conspicuous only by their absence. Of course, among the specialized sciences are found sciences that deal with Hebraic material. But the question is of the general culture fostered by our educational system; and in this biblical literature has little or no place. It is dismaying to find such disparity between theory and practice. If the evolution of our civilization has been what has been described, if there be any soundness in the conception of education as reflecting evolution, how can we be content with the one-sided culture which our educational system reveals? It is not of errors or deficiencies that we complain; we note the absence of any care for realizing more than half our responsibilities. A culture based on so imperfect an ideal seems to suggest nothing but the striking expression of the Hebrew prophet, "Ephraim is a cake not turned": what is offered for our highest intellectual and spiritual pabulum is discovered to have been done only on one side!

To begin with, we note not only the intrinsic loss to education of the biblical literature itself; there is the further loss of its interaction with the other elements of culture. In cases of this kind one *plus* one makes a great deal more than two. We have here, in the first place, two of the world's great literatures absolutely on a par in their literary worth. Let those pronounce who are familiar with both. In the second place, while Hellenic and biblical literatures are equal in rank, they are strikingly unlike in kind, presenting contrasts at every point. Thus, in the third place, when you surrender biblical literature you give up with it the whole force of the comparative method, the most potent of all instruments of study, one which, so to speak, more than anything else opens the pores of the mental skin and makes us receptive.

One who studies in the field of general literature is in a position to realize a loss like this. Literary criticism of the last three centuries sums up as a chaos of contradictions: critical parties forever fighting among themselves, and continuously retreating before the creative literature they attempt to control. The source of all this ineffectual criticism is the men of the Renaissance, who sought to exalt Aristotle into a literary dictator. It was enough to make the real Aristotle turn in his grave, for his *Poetics* was the modest task of a great mind, the simple formulation of laws of Greek poetry from the practice of Greek poets. But Renaissance criticism, seeking to make Aristotle's scientific laws into restraining laws for the poetry of the future, was fighting against nature; against nature with a Shakespeare at hand to make traditional laws into anachronisms. Only when utterly routed did this criticism, almost in our own day, wake up to the obvious fact that Aristotle knew no literature but Greek literature; though of all ancient philosophers he was the most inductive, yet in this case it was induction from a single particular. Had Renaissance critics used Hebrew literature for comparison with Greek, or, better still, had Aristotle been acquainted with the literature of the Bible, the modern world would have been spared three centuries of critical confusion from which we are only now recovering with difficulty.

But there is worse than this yet to be noted. Not only is Hebraic literature absent from our educational schemes, but the whole content of the Bible has been divorced from literary form. This seems to me one of the most marvelous accidents of history. Not that there is anything unintelligible in the fact itself, which is easily explained; the marvel lies in the indifference of the world to what has happened. We

moderns know literature only in the form of books; and the mechanism of the printed page reflects literary form to the eye of the reader so perfectly that he never has to think about it; it affects him unconsciously like the attraction of gravitation. But it has not always been so. The manuscripts of the centuries before the Christian era are wholly destitute of form: aggregations of alphabetical letters not even divided into words, with nothing to indicate dialogue, or prose and verse with verse variations. In manuscripts like these all forms of literature look exactly alike; it is a succession of editors who draw from these manuscripts the differences of prose and verse, dialogue and story. But a distinction appears between the Bible and other literature of antiquity. Greek poetry, for example, was preserved in manuscripts which were in the hands of literary editors; when the advance in the art of writing allows the page to reflect the form, this Greek literature appears in its proper literary form—Homer, an epic in hexameters; Sophocles, a drama in dialogue and choral poetry. But the Bible, all this while, was in charge of men who were not literary readers but commentators; these conceived of the Bible as material for commentary, and, when the advance in writing came to them, they gave the Bible the form of texts for comment. In this mechanical guise of numbered chapters and verses the Bible meets the modern reader; and he can hardly realize how this Bible, just like Greek literature, is made up of story, song, drama, discourse, with rhythmic variations as delicate as those of Greek or English. Very likely, when his attention is drawn to the subject, he may reply that he cares for the matter and spirit of Scripture, not for its technical form. He has not grasped the essential law of all literature, that a correct idea of the literary form is as essential as a correct idea of the grammar to enable a reader to get the meaning and spirit of what he reads. It would be easy to multiply illustrations to show how the very surface meaning of a passage is affected by the literary form in which the passage presents itself to the reader's eye. But why should I labor this point in my own prosy language when it has so splendidly been formulated in poetry? One of the lyric poets of Greece—Pindar, I think—has called the Muses "the prophets of Apollo." The whole theory of literary morphology is concentrated in that saying. Apollo symbolizes for us the whole spirit of poetry. What are the Muses? We hear of a Muse of Epic, a Muse of History, a Muse of Lyric Song, a Muse of Dancing. It is the varied forms of poetry and the arts that are personified in the Muses. And the word prophet, which is a Greek and not a Hebrew word, simply means "interpreter." The sentence brings home to us

how the whole spirit of poetry can be interpreted only through the literary forms in which it appears.

It will no doubt be contended that the Hebraic factor in our evolution, if it be absent from educational schemes, yet reaches the modern mind by other routes. The Bible has revolutionized society; its thought is institutionalized in the Jewish and Christian religions; even where religious authority may not be recognized yet the ideas of the Bible leaven modern ethics. All this is true, and of vast importance in the discussion of civilization. But culture is essentially a thing of the individual mind: not truth, but your personal reaction to truth, is what constitutes your culture. It is not the food you eat which nourishes you, but the food you digest; and digestion (some of you are painfully aware) is a question of the individual. Thus the Bible as a basis of theology is one thing; the Bible in its full literary form is quite another thing; and this last is the food of culture. Of all the forms in which thought clothes itself literature is the most spiritual, holding truth in free solution; if it be found desirable to precipitate this truth into system, something of the spiritual potency is lost in the process. Individual freedom is the breath of life to culture. What presents itself to the individual mind in the form of an orthodoxy cannot, in that form, touch the free spirit of culture. Why, the "Cheerful Cherub" knows as much as that.

> For Duty is a horrid word;
> Right doing should be glad:
> If you are good because you should,
> You might as well be bad.

There is no question here of the comparative worth of two things, but only of the distinctiveness of their spheres. Institutionalized thought may have the high function of leading us to the true waters, but only culture can make us drink.

I might stop here; for surely a dangerous situation has been disclosed when it appears that one of the two foundation elements of our culture has been omitted from our schemes of education. But I feel impelled to go one step farther. I passed lightly, just now, over the intrinsic loss of the omitted Hebraic literature. But if we look for a moment at what this literature really is, we may see that the neglect of it is a special loss in the circumstances of the present day.

There is a general consciousness among us that we are standing at one of the critical moments of time. The outside appearance of things may seem what it has been always; the customary ebbs and flows are

going on as before; but deep down below the surface the urge of the tide is carrying us into a new era. And we shall not be far wrong if we describe the coming age as an era of internationalism. The former units—of tribe, race, nation, state—are proving insufficient: we are reaching forward into a larger unity, a broader internationalism in which the lesser units are harmonized. Or is it to be some perverted conception of the word that strives to raise antagonisms of nation with nation, class with class, class with nation? Is the internationalism toward which we are moving to be a cosmos or a chaos? Of course, this is no occasion for entering upon that vast problem. The point I wish to put to you is that this neglected side of our culture, the Bible read as literature, is found to be itself a document of internationalism.

Hellenic and Hebraic literatures are alike in one point: each is a succession of "classics." But Hebraic classics differ from others in that they combine to make a unity. Of course, every literature is a unity in the historic sense; it reflects the history of the people who produced it. What I have in mind is different from this; I mean a literary unity. At the first sight of them you seem to have a library of classical works; the more you study them the more you see the library condense into a book, its different parts drawing together into a unity like that of dramatic plot and movement. I am going beyond the position taken by Seeley. I have ventured to speak of the whole Bible as a drama in two acts with an interlude. And the lines on which this drama becomes a unity are expressed by one conception of internationalism.

A suggestion of this kind makes the starting-point of the movement; the primitive symbolism of Babel suggests the rise of varying languages, which in time make varying nations; the clashes and antagonisms of nations as they fall farther and farther apart make a foundation for the main difficulties of the world. Against a background like this we have the idea of a chosen nation, a nation chosen to the high function of bringing the other nations to its conception of God—the sublime idea of a theocracy of the whole world. This theocracy is soon seen to break down under the weight of the secular; but before it comes to an end its forward-looking seers see a new theocracy: no longer a political body, but laws and principles written in the hearts of individuals—a kingdom of God within men. At the close of the first act, in the vision poem of the Isaiahan rhapsody, we reach in full form a philosophy of world-history, imaginatively presented as proclaimed from the throne of the universe. But the ideal has changed as it has advanced. The first conception, natural to its age, had been force; in place of this we now

hear of agencies as gentle as the light, gentlest and most irresistible of things; and with this the potency of suffering self-sacrifice. Yet with all this is ever linked what the Bible expresses by its great word judgment, the daily and unrelenting war against wrong until it has been extirpated. With this combination the whole ideal has been transformed from world-conquest to world-redemption.

Between the first and the second acts we have the Books of Wisdom, that special conception of philosophy which, in biblical literature, confines itself to the philosophy of human life. Not discussions and systematizations, but brief essays are the form taken by Wisdom philosophy: essays on such topics as husbands and wives, parents and children, wise men and fools, pride and true greatness, prosperity and adversity—all the details that go to build up a philosophy of personality. It is this personality that is the solvent for the confusions of internationalism. All these clashing nations are made up of husbands and wives, parents and children, men proud and men humble. Personality is the one factor in common among these diverse peoples, the common interest in which they become one. With the state or nation as your ideal you are impelled to exalt your state or nation, and wake up to find that you have been advancing your nation at the expense of other nations, and have simply introduced one more note of disturbance. But you can work for the exaltation of your nation without incurring any such risk; you make your nation great by making great the personalities of which it is composed. And this is the biblical way of wisdom.

So the second act, always on this basis of personality, carries forward the world-movement. The opening of the first act struck, in Babel, the note of disruption of nations; the opening note of the second act is the symbolism of Pentecost, all the disrupted nations drawn again into a unity. But you mark that this unity is not a uniformity but a harmony; a world-message is being uttered, but, mysteriously, "every man hears it in the language in which he was born"; a world-order which each individual translates in the terms of his own civilization. Then the world-movement goes on to a vision climax of the kingdoms of the world become a single spiritual kingdom. "But this," you say, "is merely poetry." Poetry it may be; but poetry is the one form in which culture may legitimately become aggressive.

Is it too much to suggest that if ideals like these, not in the guise of authority, which breeds contentions, but clothed with the highest literary beauty and force of imaginative movement—the agencies

gentle as the light—had won their way into the fundamental culture of the various nations, the history of recent years might have been very different, and the perplexities of the present movement might seem a degree less perplexing?

You will perhaps say that all this is an individual interpretation of things, biased by the literary professor's wish to exalt literature as the natural food of culture, with special readings of disputed questions. Very likely you may be right. But what you have been hearing this afternoon is not a Doctor's thesis, to be controversially defended against the cross-examination of a committee of specialists. Take it rather as the last speech and confession of a teacher retiring from active service after a fifty-year job and leaving the field to others; leaving it to colleagues brilliantly equipped in their several fields and with years of distinguished service ahead of them; leaving it to you, young men and women, who are this day to put on your academic armor with which to face the problems of the future. I have simply been putting to you what the situation looks like to me as I retire. A great saying of Bacon comes to me as I sum up—itself an echo from biblical wisdom. "Take your stand on the paths of antiquity"—but the sentence does not end there—"in order to see clearly in what directions you shall make your progress." In the chronic difficulty of reading correctly the past and present, in the special perplexity today of speculating upon the future, you have one safe clue if you recognize the foundation of our civilization as resting on the meeting of Hellenic and Hebraic, if by granting in education equal play to classical and biblical literature you mainain the sanity of our modern culture.

THE PRESIDENT'S CONVOCATION STATEMENT

THE CONVOCATION ORATOR

The Orator today came to the University in 1892, at the opening, and has been an active and valued member of the Faculty ever since. His address at this Convocation is especially appropriate, and only one of many charming and thought-provoking discussions which we owe to him. I cordially thank Professor Moulton, and extend to him every good wish on behalf of the University.

GIFTS

The University has received several interesting gifts during the quarter just closing:

The ladies of the Columbia Damen Club of Chicago have given $100 for a Scholarship in the Department of Germanic Languages and Literatures.

Mr. William Hoskins, of Chicago, gives $400 for a Fellowship in the Department of Chemistry.

E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Company for the second time give $750 for a Research Fellowship in the Department of Chemistry.

A donor whose name is withheld gives $600 for a Fellowship in the Department of Home Economics in the College of Education.

The mother, brother, colleagues, and friends of Edith Barnard have completed a fund of $3,000 for the endowment of the "Edith Barnard Memorial Fellowship in Chemistry." This Fellowship has been temporarily provided through the aid of Mr. and Mrs. Barnard since 1916, but is now permanently endowed. This Memorial Fellowship will be an effective means of keeping fresh the memory of so choice a personality as that of the member of the staff of the Department of Chemistry in whose honor it is named.

By the will of the late Harriet Morse a legacy of $3,000 is given to the University to be known as "The Herbert A. and Harriet E. Morse Fund," the income from which is to be applied to scholarships.

Mr. William Huber, Jr., of Hamilton, Ohio, has recently given to the University Libraries his entire library, consisting chiefly of music. The collection has already been received at the University and it is

expected that it will be unpacked and placed on shelves within the next six months.

No exact inventory has as yet been made. But it is estimated that it numbers 13,000 organ scores, chiefly arranged for the piano, and in addition about 700 volumes dealing largely with the literature of music.

The donor, Mr. Huber, has for many years been a prominent organist and choir-leader, and the present collection is the result of years of effort in bringing together the best scores, particularly in his special line, viz., organ music. The library contains a great many publications which are no longer in the trade and which it would be impossible to obtain through purchase.

It is hoped that the collection may be at least classified, and possibly in part catalogued, during the coming year.

THE ORIENTAL INSTITUTE

The close of the Great War and the overthrow of the Turkish Empire, with the probable establishment of order and civilized methods in the countries once misgoverned by that agency, open a very interesting field to discoveries in the ancient history of oriental peoples. In order that the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures of the University may be in a position to avail itself of the situation to add to the stores accumulated in the Haskell Oriental Museum and to share in the great advance of knowledge in these oriental lands, the Board of Trustees has authorized the organization of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, and has appointed Professor James Henry Breasted as Director. The funds to carry on the Institute for an initial five-year period at the rate of $10,000 a year, amounting to $50,000, are the gift of a former Trustee of the University, Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr.

RESEARCH IN PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY

The Great War has made very vivid the necessity of the applications of science to various forms of human activity. In fact, the war has been conducted by means of applied science on an extraordinarily large scale. It has become entirely evident that the future success of national life throughout the world depends on further developments and further applications of knowledge in many processes of manufactures and of transportation and of the transmission of information.

In short, the new world on which we are entering depends largely on the mastery of the forces of nature by human intelligence. But it is also quite obvious that applied science depends absolutely on the principles elucidated by pure science. Hence it is of paramount importance that research in pure science should have every possible encouragement.

To aid in this encouragement the Rockefeller Foundation has made a large contribution to the National Research Council for a term of five years, thus enabling that body to provide liberally endowed research fellowships in physics and in chemistry. Fellows appointed by the Council may choose the institution of their study. One such Fellow has already been appointed in the University of Chicago, and others will be appointed later. While the research facilities of the University are adequate in these departments to a large extent, at the same time in order to enter satisfactorily on the new progress desired, it is important that these resources should be very materially increased.

A RESEARCH LABORATORY IN CHEMISTRY

It is absolutely necessary that provision should be made in chemistry for a research building, either as a separate building or as an addition to the Kent Chemical Laboratory. That Laboratory is now filled to overflowing, and the special needs of present-day science require adaptations which do not now exist in Kent. The first need, therefore, of the University in carrying out the work planned by the National Research Council is to obtain the funds for this research laboratory in chemistry. The funds should be sufficient to provide a suitable building, with complete modern equipment, and with adequate arrangements for its maintenance.

RESEARCH ENDOWMENT

By the time such a building is completed and in operation it is highly desirable that still further funds shall be provided as endowment for research professorships, both in chemistry and in physics. It is not the policy of the University that the entire time of such professor should be given to research. We believe it better to devote a part of his time to instruction of advanced students. But the major part of his energy should be free for the advancement of knowledge. The University hopes and believes that in the near future donors will be found who will be interested in these great lines of development.

THE END OF THE WAR

In May the University celebrated a requiem service in honor of its sons who gave their lives in the Great War. Today we welcome back others of our members, faculty and students, who served in the good cause and who are at home once more. We greet them with full hearts and congratulate them on the privilege they had of contributing to the victory of our country and of the powers associated with us over the malign forces which so gravely threatened the world. Their example must strengthen our hands for conquest over any other sinister forces which may endanger our republic.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

By J. SPENCER DICKERSON, *Secretary*

NEW TRUSTEES

At the annual meeting of the Board of Trustees the following were elected to succeed themselves for a period of three years: Messrs. Eli B. Felsenthal, Harry Pratt Judson, Harold F. McCormick, Julius Rosenwald, Martin A. Ryerson, Willard A. Smith, and Harold H. Swift.

At the same meeting Dr. Wilber E. Post was elected a Trustee to fill a vacancy in the class of 1920, and Rev. Charles W. Gilkey to fill a vacancy in the class of 1921 caused by the death of Judge J. Otis Humphrey, of Springfield, Illinois.

Dr. Post was graduated from Kalamazoo College in 1898, from the University of Chicago in 1900, and from Rush Medical College in 1903. He has practiced medicine in Chicago since his graduation from Rush Medical College. He is an assistant professor of medicine of Rush Medical College and an attending physician of the Cook County and Presbyterian hospitals. He was a member of the special Red Cross Mission sent to Russia in 1917 and, in 1918, of the American-Persian Relief Commission, of which President Judson was director. Dr. Post is the third alumnus of the University now a member of the Board of Trustees. There are two alumni of the old University now members of the Board.

Mr. Gilkey has been pastor of the Hyde Park Baptist Church, Chicago, since 1910. He is a graduate of Harvard University (1903) and of Union Theological Seminary (1908), New York City. He has studied in the Universities of Berlin and Marburg, in the United Free Church College, Glasgow, New College, Edinburgh, and at Oxford University. He is a trustee of the Baptist Theological Union. He has repeatedly served as university preacher at Harvard, Yale, Cornell, and the University of Chicago.

THE ORIENTAL INSTITUTE

At the meeting of the Board of Trustees held May 13, 1919, President Judson announced a gift of $50,000 by Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., to establish for a trial period of five years the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago. The Institute is organized upon a plan outlined by Professor James Henry Breasted, Chairman of the Department of

Oriental Languages and Literatures. The significant opportunity which world-conditions now present for exploration and study in the Near East and the Orient makes this provision for the purpose of research especially timely.

At a subsequent meeting of the Trustees, Professor Breasted was appointed Director of the Institute and Mr. Thomas George Allen, Secretary of Haskell Oriental Museum, was chosen as the Secretary of the Institute.

EDITH BARNARD MEMORIAL FELLOWSHIP

The Board of Trustees at the meeting held June 10, 1919, accepted a fund of $3,000 creating the Edith Barnard Memorial Fellowship in Chemistry. The gift was accompanied by the following communication:

CHICAGO, June 3, 1919

The Board of Trustees
University of Chicago

We, the undersigned, mother, brother, colleagues, pupils and friends of Edith Barnard, have subscribed to and completed a fund of $3,000 for the perpetual endowment of the Edith Barnard Memorial Fellowship in Chemistry, which we would now hereby tender to the University of Chicago as a gift, in token of our love and admiration for the rarely beautiful life which was lost to us so early, and also as a mark of appreciation and gratitude to the University, which contributed so much to the happiness of our departed friend by giving her a field for service in which her helpful nature and courageous, cheerful personality enriched the lives of many men and women. In the Memorial Fellowship we wish to see the name of Edith Barnard connected for all time with a form of helpfulness and service to others through her Alma Mater, as helpfulness and service were the salient characteristics of her life.

It is to be understood that the fellowship will be awarded annually on recommendation of the Department of Chemistry on the usual conditions controlling fellowships in the University, that the stipend per year shall represent the total income received from the invested fellowship funds, that no service will be required in return for the fellowship appointment, and that the fellowship will be no bar to appointment to another University position (assistantship) not conflicting with the purposes of the fellowship.

MRS. EMILY BARNARD
HARRISON B. BARNARD
ERNEST W. FARR
ESTELLE B. HUNTER
AGNES FAY MORGAN
EDGAR F. OLSON
H. G. POWERS
JULIUS STIEGLITZ
AND
SIXTY-FOUR OTHERS

RESEARCH FELLOWSHIPS IN PHYSICS AND CHEMISTRY

President Judson, at the meeting of the Board of Trustees held May 13, 1919, reported the action of the Rockefeller Institute in reference to a plan for establishing national research fellowships under the direction of the National Research Council.

The plan proposed by the National Research Council and approved by the officers provides for the support by the Foundation for a six-year period of such a system to be carried out by the National Research Council. The plan includes:

a) A system of fellowships to be known as "National Research Fellowships in Physics and Chemistry supported by the Rockefeller Foundation."

b) Provision through these fellowships of liberal stipends to persons who have already demonstrated a high order of ability in research, for the purpose of enabling them to conduct investigations at educational institutions which have made adequate provision for the effective prosecution of research in physics and chemistry.

c) A definite agreement that the results of the investigation by the fellows shall be made available to the public without restriction.

d) Such supplemental features as may promote the particular purpose of the project and increase its efficiency. Thus it should be possible in certain cases to provide the fellows with such special apparatus and technical assistance as their researches may require, to send them abroad for work for a time with leading investigators in their chosen fields of research, and to bring distinguished investigators to this country to visit the institutions at which research fellows are working and to stimulate and broaden their work.

e) Adequate direction of the whole project by a research board.

The Rockefeller Foundation pledges itself to appropriate to the National Research Council for the maintenance of a system of National Research Fellowships in Physics and Chemistry such additional sums for use in succeeding years as shall make available for expenditure during the period from May 1, 1919, to June 30, 1925, a total sum not to exceed $500,000.

THE HERBERT A. AND HARRIET E. MORSE FUND

By the will of Harriet Morse, deceased, a legacy of $3,000 was left to the University. The fund is to be known as the "Herbert A. and Harriet E. Morse Fund," the income of which is to be applied to the education of worthy and needy persons desiring to attend the University.

A son, Walter H. Morse, now of New York City, was a student in the University in the years 1905–8.

APPOINTMENTS

In addition to reappointments the following appointments have been made by the Board of Trustees:

Alfred Eustace Haydon to an instructorship in the Department of Comparative Religion, from July 1, 1919.

Lawrence M. Levin to an instructorship in the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures, from October 1, 1919.

Robert S. Platt to an instructorship in the Department of Geography, from October 1, 1919.

Benjamin H. Willier to an associateship in the Department of Zoölogy, from October 1, 1919.

Colonel Harold E. Marr, U.S.A. Field Artillery, to the professorship of Military Science and Tactics, from May 1, 1919.

Willis Eugene Gouwens as Curator of Kent Chemical Laboratory, from July 1, 1919.

Ellsworth Faris to a professorship in the Department of Sociology, from October 1, 1919. He is professor of psychology in the University of Iowa and acting director of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station.

Edson Sunderland Bastin to a professorship of Economic Geology, from January 1, 1920.

Professor Stuart Weller as Director of Walker Museum, from July 1, 1919.

Jacob Viner to an assistant professorship in the Department of Political Economy, from October 1, 1919. He is at present connected with the office of the United States Tariff Commission at Washington.

Paul R. Cannon to an instructorship in the Department of Hygiene and Bacteriology, from October 1, 1919.

Russell S. Knappen to an instructorship in the Department of Geology, from October 1, 1919.

Leonard B. Loeb as Research Fellow in the Department of Physics.

Mary Faith McAuley to an assistant professorship in Institution Economics in the College of Education, from October 1, 1919.

Laura van Pappelendam to an instructorship in the Art Department of the College of Education, from October 1, 1919.

Carl J. Holzinger as teacher of Mathematics in the University High School, from October 1, 1919.

William G. Burkett as teacher of Mathematics in the University High School, from October 1, 1919.

D. S. Whittlesey to an instructorship in the Department of Geography, from October 1, 1919.

Bess Beatrice Martin as Assistant Examiner, from July 1, 1919.

Henry Clinton Morrison to a professorship of School Administration and the superintendency of the Laboratory Schools of the School of Education, from July 1, 1919. He was graduated from Dartmouth College in 1895; was superintendent of schools of the state of New Hampshire from 1904 to 1917; since that time he has been a secretary of the Board of Education of the state of Connecticut.

Chi Che Wang to an instructorship in Home Economics in the College of Education, from July 1, 1919.

Françoise Ruet as teacher of French in the University High School, from October 1, 1919.

Mrs. Marie Cote Weaver as teacher of French in the University High School, from October 1, 1919.

Robert G. Buzzard as teacher of Science in the University High School, from October 1, 1919.

R. Leora Vail as teacher in the Elementary School, from October 1, 1919.

Charles E. Chadsey to give instruction in the Department of Education, in the College of Education, for the Summer Quarter, 1919.

Dorothea C. Schmidt on the staff of the University Libraries, from July 1, 1919.

PROMOTIONS

Assistant Professor W. E. Clark, of the Department of Comparative Philology, General Linguistics, and Indo-Iranian Philology, to an associate professorship, from October 1, 1919.

Assistant Professor W. D. MacMillan, of the Department of Astronomy, to an associate professorship, from October 1, 1919.

Associate A. W. Bellamy, of the Department of Zoölogy, to an instructorship, from July 1, 1919.

Instructor Fred T. Rogers to an assistant professorship in the Department of Physiology, from July 1, 1919.

Assistant Andrew C. Ivy, of the Department of Physiology, to an instructorship, from October 1, 1919.

Associate Howard M. Sheaff, of the Department of Physiological Chemistry, to an instructorship, from July 1, 1919.

Assistant John V. Lawrence, of the Department of Physiological Chemistry, to an associateship, from July 1, 1919.

Instructor George D. Fuller, of the Department of Botany, to an assistant professorship, from October 1, 1919.

Associate Professor Algernon Coleman, of the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures, to a professorship, from July 1, 1919.

Associate I. N. Edwards, of the Department of History, to an instructorship, from October 1, 1919.

LEAVES OF ABSENCE

To the following members of the faculties leave of absence has been granted:

Dean James Rowland Angell for one year from October 1, 1919, to accept the chairmanship of the National Research Council for that period.

Mrs. Charles Lyman Brown, instructor in Art in the College of Education, for one year, from October 1, 1919.

RESIGNATIONS

The Board of Trustees has accepted the resignations of the following members of the faculties:

Professor W. S. Tower, of the Department of Geography, effective May 1, 1919.

Assistant Professor Joseph W. Hayes, of the Department of Psychology, effective May 1, 1919.

Associate Professor Allan Hoben, of the Department of Practical Theology in the Divinity School, effective September 1, 1919. He becomes professor of sociology at Carleton College, Northfield, Minn.

RETIREMENT OF PROFESSORS MOULTON, HALE, AND CHAMBERLIN

At the meeting of the Board of Trustees, held June 10, 1919, President Judson announced that Professor Richard Green Moulton, Professor William Gardner Hale, and Professor Thomas Chrowder Chamberlin would automatically retire in the near future from the service of the University under the age limit fixed in the Statutes: Professor Moulton on July 1, 1919, Professor Hale on July 1, 1919, and Professor Chamberlin on October 1, 1919.

The Trustees adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Board be instructed to convey to each of the three professors thus leaving the service of the University an expression of the high appreciation in which their long-continued and eminent services

are held by the Board of Trustees, and its regret that the happy relations which have existed between them, severally, and the University, from the time of its organization, are now being severed.

MISCELLANEOUS

Extensive repairs have been authorized in the Anatomy Building.

Scholarships to the number of 145 have been granted under the La Verne Noyes Foundation.

Professor Rollin D. Salisbury, of the Department of Geography, has been transferred to the head professorship of the Department of Geology.

Professor H. H. Barrows has been appointed Chairman of the Department of Geography.

The building at 923 East Sixtieth Street, formerly used as a fraternity house, is to be used as a dormitory for men students.

Lyman Russell Flook, formerly superintendent of buildings and grounds at the University of Michigan, and later first lieutenant, Ordnance Reserve Corps in charge of construction at the United States Nitrate Plant, Sheffield, Alabama, has been appointed Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds.

Mr. William Hoskins, of Chicago, has established a fellowship in Chemistry for a period of nine or ten months. The appointee is to work in the study of reactions in ionized vapors.

THE AMERICAN-PERSIAN RELIEF EXPEDITION[1]

Leave of absence was granted to the President of the University at the meeting of the Board held May 14, 1918, in order to perform certain duties in Persia. The purposes of the mission were twofold:

1. The President was appointed to the directorship of the American-Persian Relief Commission, with the intent of endeavoring to remedy conditions in Persia resulting from famine, pestilence, and war. The American Committee for Relief in the Near East, formerly the American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief, had been sending funds to various missionaries in Persia for the past two years. It was thought best that a commission should go out to Persia, in order to study the situation and organize relief on a more definite basis and on a larger scale, if necessary.

2. A committee, of which Colonel E. M. House is chairman, and which was busy collecting material for the use of our Commissioners to negotiate peace when such Commission should be appointed, requested the President of the University to make a report to that Committee on the political and social conditions in Persia, and, so far as possible, in adjacent countries. This suggestion of the Committee was reinforced by a very specific request from the Department of State, at Washington, under whose direction and for whose benefit the Committee was acting.

Of these purposes the second was the deciding consideration in the mind of the President, as a request from the government of the United States was virtually a command, to which it was the duty of a citizen to accede at once.

The President, however, made one condition with the Department of State, namely, that the visit to Persia for this purpose should be made with the full knowledge and approval of the British government. The matter was cabled by the Department to the British government, and the reply expressed entire approval.

[1]At the meeting of the Board of Trustees of the University held April 17, 1919, this report was presented by President Harry Pratt Judson.

I beg herewith to submit a brief statement as to the work of the mission and its results. A detailed report was submitted to the American Committee for Relief in the Near East, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City, copy of which is on file in the office of the Secretary of the Board of Trustees of the University of Chicago. A confidential report was submitted to the American Commissioners to negotiate peace, in Paris. This is in three typewritten volumes, covering respectively Mesopotamia, Persia, and the Caucasus.

The Director of the Commission and his two colleagues, Dr. W. E. Post, of Chicago, and Mr. Maurice Wertheim, a banker of New York City and son-in-law of Mr. Morgenthau, late American ambassador to Turkey, sailed from New York July 14, 1918, for Liverpool. Three weeks were spent in London. During that time conferences were held with the British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Mr. A. J. Balfour, with the Under-Secretary for the Near East in the British Foreign Office, Lord Robert Cecil, with the Secretary of State for India, Mr. Edward Montagu, and with representatives of the British Treasury. These officials were very frank in their statement of British policy in Persia, and very generous in their provision for the journey. It should be said here that throughout the entire journey, from London to Egypt, Bombay, Baghdad, Persia, Transcaucasia, and to Italy by way of Constantinople, the Commission was given the constant assistance of the British Army and the British Navy, without which assistance the whole expedition would have been practically impossible. Everywhere there was extreme courtesy, and the frankest possible statement of all facts needed. The government of British India at Simla not merely extended every facility for the journey, but in turn put the President in possession of all the facts involving British policy in Mesopotamia and Persia.

In accordance with a provisional arrangement, ten members of the Commission had sailed from Seattle in May and June, 1919, proceeding by way of Japan, Hongkong, Singapore, Ceylon, and Bombay. It was the plan of the Director to rendezvous with them at Bombay or Baghdad.

On August 15 word came from the Foreign Office for the members of the Commission to proceed at once to Rome, where further instructions would be found. Accordingly, London was left on the sixteenth, Paris on the eighteenth, and Rome reached on the twentieth. Here, at the British Embassy, instructions were given to report at Taranto by noon of the twenty-fifth. In fact, that place was reached on the

afternoon of the twenty-fourth, and accommodations found waiting on the Orient Line steamer "Ormonde," employed as a transport, and packed with officers and men for the various eastern services. The ship left Taranto on the morning of the twenty-fifth, guarded by three destroyers under the Japanese flag. Port Said was reached the forenoon of the twenty-eighth. As no steamer was leaving eastward for several days, the party went to Cairo, where arrangements for the next stage of the journey were made with the British Headquarters. On the afternoon of September 2 the party sailed from Port Said on the P. & O. steamer "Nore" for Bombay.

At Aden a cablegram was received from the Viceroy of India, inviting the Director and his two companions to be guests at the viceregal Lodge at Simla. This invitation was confirmed at Bombay, and accordingly a week was taken in the journey to and from Simla, and in the visit there. The Simla visit was extremely important. Besides receiving every courtesy at the viceregal Lodge, the members of the Commission were able to hold detailed consultations with the principal members of the Indian government. Much valuable information was obtained, and the government became fully informed as to the purposes and methods of the Commission. The Commission received the entire approval of the Indian government, and in all their after undertakings had the active support of that government. Backed thus by the Foreign Office and the India Office in London, and by the Indian government at Simla, the way was smoothed at every point.

At Bombay rendezvous was effected with two members of the Commission who had come across the Pacific, the remainder of that party having gone ahead to Baghdad. On September 26 the party sailed from Bombay under direction of the military authorities for Basra in Mesopotamia.

Basra, the great British base on the Shatt-el-Arab, was reached early in the afternoon of October 1, and here the party was transferred to a river boat, with barges in tow. The military authorities did everything to make the reception of the Commission and its further journey pleasant, and the admiral commanding the fleet in the Indian Seas entertained them at dinner on his flagship.

Leaving Basra October 2, at 8:00 A.M., the long and slow trip up the Tigris was made to the rail-head at Kut, which place was reached October 5, just before midnight—too late for the night train for Baghdad.

The party took the train at Kut October 6, and reached Baghdad that evening. They were met by the Aid of the Civil Commissioner, and taken at once to the residence of the latter as his guests.

The Acting Civil Commissioner, Lieutenant Colonel A. T. Wilson, is quite a young man, of unusual ability and energy, and is doing extremely interesting work in the development of Mesopotamia under British rule.

The first question considered naturally was that of the Armenian and Assyrian refugees, about whom telegrams had been received from London and from New York.

These refugees, some 25,000 in number, had come down from Northwestern Persia, fleeing from the Turks. The British authorities had placed them in a camp some thirty miles from Baghdad, and were taking proper measures for shelter, medical and sanitary care, and supplies of provisions and clothing. The Commission made arrangements to co-operate with the British authorities in this work, and left the greater part of its members in the camp to carry out the plans in question.

At Baghdad the Ford cars which had been sent on in advance from San Francisco were found waiting. The party selected for Persia by the Director consisted, besides himself, of the two gentlemen who came with him from New York, Professor A. V. W. Jackson, of Columbia University, and Mrs. Jackson, and Mr. Vaile, of one of the California agricultural colleges. The party started from Baghdad on the twelfth of October, with a convoy consisting of ten Ford cars—two touring cars and eight vans—with six chauffeurs from India, four British military chauffeurs, and a British lieutenant in command. There were thus altogether seventeen in the party.

The road from Baghdad to Persia was across the Mesopotamian desert. From there as far as Teheran and the Caspian Sea it was a military road, over the mountains and the Persian tableland. This road was found always passable, and sometimes in very good condition. It was the main source of supply for the British Army in North Persia. Stops were made at Kermanshah, Hamadan, and Kasvin, at which places committees were formed for relief and funds provided for their use. Teheran was reached on the thirty-first of October. The party were given quarters by the courtesy of the American Minister in the American Legation, and a month was spent in that place.

Teheran being the capital of Persia, it was possible to organize relief work on a large scale through committees appointed and provided with funds and instructions in different parts of the kingdom. The famine of 1917–18 had caused a frightful loss of life, amounting, according to some estimates, to as high as a million persons. Meanwhile the failure of crops in 1917 had affected the fodder crops also, and there was great mortality among draft animals. Persia is a mountainous country, consisting in the main of a tableland of about three or four thousand feet altitude, and while having some three times the area of France, it has practically no railways at all. The heavy loss to draft animals, therefore, made transportation very difficult in 1918. Nevertheless the crops of that year were reasonably good, and on account of this fact, and of arrangements which it was possible to make through the various committees, and by help which the Persian government was induced to extend, affairs assumed such shape that it is believed that the winter of 1918–19 was not accompanied by famine conditions.

The work of relief having beeen organized, a central committee in Teheran having been appointed to supervise the work throughout Persia, and proper arrangements having been made for funds, the party, consisting of the Director, Messrs. Post, Wertheim, Jackson, and Mrs. Jackson, accompanied by a young man as secretary, left Teheran on the second of December, en route to Paris, by way of the Caspian Sea, the Black Sea, Constantinople, and Italy. By that time the British authorities were in possession of Baku and of the railway connecting Baku with Batum, on the Black Sea, and they provided transportation from Resht, the Caspian seaport of Persia, to Baku. Several days were spent in that place, making arrangements for relief to Armenian refugees in the camp at Resht and vicinity and for Armenian orphans in Baku. The British authorities provided special cars on the railway to Batum, with a military guard. The party left Baku on the tenth of December, and reached Batum on the thirteenth. The twelfth was spent in Tiflis, the capital of Georgia. At Batum a British light cruiser arrived, sent on for the purpose from Trebizond by the British Admiral commanding the Mediterranean Station, and conveyed the party to Taranto, Italy. A stop of two days was made in Constantinople while the ship was coaling. Here the Director met Presidents Gates and Patrick, of the American Colleges, and became somewhat cognizant of the local situation there and in other parts of Turkey. Such information as was obtained was put at the disposal of Dr. Barton's committee in Paris.

Paris was reached on the twenty-seventh of December, and some three weeks spent there in the preparation of such report as might seem advisable for the American Commissioners to negotiate peace, and in conference with the Secretary of State and others of the Peace Commission. The Director and his companions sailed from Brest on the twenty-third of January on the White Star Line steamship "Adriatic," arriving in New York January 31.

The relief work in Persia involved the expenditure of about $1,250,000 and the organization of plans which would require from two to three millions more during the spring and summer of 1919.

The skilful arrangements made by the Treasurer of the Commission, Mr. Maurice Wertheim, solved the difficulties of exchange in eastern countries so successfully that upward of $200,000 were saved for the purposes of the Commission, and the whole system of finance for the American Committee for Relief in the Near East was put on so sound a basis that further large sums will be saved in the work of the remainder of this year. It is believed by the President that the Commission succeeded in the undertaking for which it was sent, and that the management of finance was such that the entire cost of the Commission was repaid to the Committee several times over from saving in exchange.

While in Mesopotamia, Persia, and the Caucasus a careful study was made of the social and political conditions in those countries. In Baghdad every facility was extended to the Director by the British Civil Commissioner, all his archives being opened for examination, and careful reports being prepared and put in the hands of the Director for such use as he might see fit. The British work in Baghdad is of a very high order. Turkish misgovernment has been replaced by justice, order, and law. Extensive public works have been established, including a railroad from Basra to Baghdad and an extensive irrigation project on the Euphrates River. The country, therefore, is prospering, and is being developed by the British for the benefit of the resident people, and is not being exploited for the benefit of the occupying power.

Persia is largely under British military occupation. As soon, however, as a stable government can be maintained, so that safety of life and property are secured, no doubt the British Army will be withdrawn. Meanwhile the economic and political conditions of the country are very disturbed, and there is need of radical reforms on all lines. Persians look to the United States to send suitable help for these purposes.

In Paris the Director filed a report with the American Commission to negotiate peace, in three typewritten volumes, one on Mesopotamia, one on Persia, and one on the Caucasus. It included detailed studies on various political, economic, and social conditions in those countries, with specific recommendations as to policies which, in the judgment of the Director, ought to be carried out, in order to secure peace and order, in place of the disorders which for so many years have been prevalent. Having finished the report and filed it with the Commission, and having had personal conferences with the Secretary of State, Colonel House, and other members of the Commission and staff, the party returned to the United States.

In thanking the Board of Trustees for the generous leave of absence, the President wishes to say that he believes the long and somewhat arduous journey was successful, not merely in the relief undertakings in Persia, but in the information given to our Commissioners, which they were good enough to say was of the highest value.

THE FOUNDING OF THE FIRST UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

In 1856 the population of Chicago was a little over 80,000. The city was in the full tide of commercial prosperity. The Illinois and Michigan Canal had been completed in 1848. The eastern railroads had entered the city in 1852. Railways were being extended west and south, and the business expansion of the city had received a mighty impulse. Wealth was increasing, business was booming, and the people of Chicago were more than ever confident of the coming greatness of their city.

Combined with this boundless faith in the future of Chicago was a remarkable idealism which conceived and executed noble schemes for the higher life of the city and the West. Just before this year, 1856, the Northwestern University had been established. In this very year steps were taken for founding the Chicago Theological Seminary. Proffers were being made which resulted in bringing to the city what became the McCormick Theological Seminary. At this time the Chicago Academy of Sciences originated. Hahnemann College was incorporated in 1855. The same year witnessed the organization of the Old Settlers Society. In 1856 the Garrett Biblical Institute was opened, the Chicago Historical Society was organized, and the first city high school opened its doors. Two years later St. Luke's Hospital was founded, and during the period from 1855 to 1859 other institutions of charity, fraternity, and education in addition to many churches were established. Chicago was at this time a city not only of business but also of idealism, philanthropy, and religion.

To all its other contributions to the higher life the bustling, prosperous, growing city, though as yet poor in accumulated wealth, added, with enthusiastic liberality, the founding of the first University of Chicago.

Senator Stephen A. Douglas became a resident of Chicago in 1847 and in 1849 bought 74 acres of land reaching from Thirty-third to Thirty-fifth Street and from Lake Michigan to South Park Avenue. Cottage Grove Avenue ran through the middle of the tract. That

part of the tract lying east of Cottage Grove Avenue was subdivided and called "Okenwald," and here Mr. Douglas had a house. On the west of the avenue, almost in the center of the 74-acre tract, were the 10 acres which became the site of the first University of Chicago. The location was a little over a third of a mile south of the city limits at Thirty-first Street, which the street cars did not reach till 1859.

There has fallen into my hands a paper written more than fifty years ago, sometime in the sixties of the last century, never copied, never printed, which is, I am confident, the most authentic record of the very earliest steps taken in the founding of the first University of Chicago. It was written by Mr. J. O. Brayman, who was long associated with the Baptist newspaper now known as *The Standard*, and with whom I was intimately acquainted. I quote from this paper:

Dr. Ansel Eddy, with whom I was very well acquainted at the last, came to Chicago in the fall of 1854, prospecting. He had been formerly a tutor of Mr. Douglas and a close intimacy and warm friendship had always existed between them. One day walking over Mr. Douglas' property at Cottage Grove, Dr. Eddy suggested that the best use to which he could put a portion of his land would be to endow a college or university. After a few moments' silence Mr. Douglas replied, "I will, Doctor, if you will be the president of it." (I have this from Dr. Eddy.)

In the spring of 1855 Dr. Eddy came to Chicago as pastor of a Presbyterian church on the North Side. Sometime in the spring—April, I think it was—the subject of the college grant was renewed between him and Mr. Douglas. An arrangement was entered into that he should have the ten acres, provided he raised $100,000 by the first of December, in cash or good subscriptions.

A few weeks thereafter Mr. Douglas, who was in disgrace with the people of Chicago on account of the part he took in the Kansas-Nebraska affair and they hooted, hissed and badgered him and would not allow him to speak at North Market Hall, went over to visit some friends at Terre Haute, Indiana. He was taken sick there and did not return to Chicago, but went from there to Washington on the opening of Congress and was not again in Chicago until about the first of April, 1856.

About the middle of July, 1855, Dr. Smith [Dr. Justin A. Smith, editor of *The Standard*] and his wife, who boarded where we did, left their rooms. They were taken by F. W. King and his wife. Mrs. King, being a niece of Dr. Eddy and daughter of Rev. Alfred Eddy, was an educated and intelligent woman and she and my wife soon "struck up" quite an intimacy. One evening about the middle of November I went home from the office about 10 o'clock and found my wife quite excited. Mrs. King had spent the evening in her room and had told her that her uncle [Dr. Eddy] had made an utter failure—

"had not raised a dollar" was his expression to her. We had had some talk previously with Dr. Burroughs [pastor of the First Baptist Church] as to why the grant was not made to the Baptists, as Mr. Douglas' first wife was a Baptist. My wife now saw an opportunity for the Baptists and wanted me to go over and see Dr. Burroughs. Next morning I went, but, not finding him, left an invitation to come over to tea in the evening. He did so and the matter was talked over.

In the first days of December, 1855, Dr. Burroughs getting a letter of introduction from Mr. [Thomas] Hoyne, went over to Terre Haute and had an interview with Mr. Douglas. He found that Dr. Eddy had been over near the last of November and got an extension to the first of March, 1856. If he did not succeed by that time Dr. Burroughs got the promise of the grant. Dr. Burroughs suggested, and we fell in with the suggestion, to watch the matter through Mrs. King and Dr. Eddy and to keep advised of what progress had been made, and at the same time to keep the matter secret, lest the Presbyterians might learn that something was being done by the Baptists and might bestir themselves.

Being advised that Dr. Eddy had had no better success than before December, Dr. Burroughs presented himself at Mr. Douglas' rooms in Washington on the first of March, 1856. Mr. Douglas had heard nothing from Dr. Eddy and still clung to him lest there might be some communication from him on the way. He therefore asked Dr. Burroughs to wait until the 15th, which of course he did. The 15th arrived and Dr. Burroughs received the transfer of the grant. It was after that, so far as I know, that the first public announcement was made.

The feeling against Mr. Douglas was so great that Dr. Burroughs had to feel his way slowly and cautiously. I remember C. N. Holden wrote a bitter article for the paper against receiving the land lest the odium should be transferred from Mr. Douglas to the Baptists. I suppressed the article, however, after it was in type. [Mr. Holden was strongly anti-slavery, and a man of excellent judgment.]

As a supplement to the above I quote an extract from the daily pocket diary of Edward Goodman, who, in 1856, was a young man recently arrived in Chicago and who later became one of the proprietors of *The Standard*. He had the diary and scrapbook habit, and much of this story comes from his scrapbook. The following is from the diary:

Tonight, Monday, May 5, 1856, at the First Baptist Church, corner of Washington and La Salle Streets, Chicago, a public meeting was held in the lecture room on educational movements to found a University in Chicago. Judge Douglas has donated ten acres in Cottage Grove on condition that the foundation of the building be laid within the present year, $25,000 be expended in 1857 and the building to the amount of $100,000 be erected within 1860. Rev. J. C. Burroughs and Rev. C. H. Roe made telling speeches.

Mr. Douglas had named twenty men to receive in trust the site, secure a charter, and start the enterprise. This preliminary Board of Trustees held its first meeting on July 14, 1856, in the law office of one of their number, Mason Brayman. Charles Walker was chairman and the following action was taken:

1. "The instrument of writing conveying the site having been read and discussed it was unanimously voted that the grant and trust be accepted."

2. An executive committee was appointed "with power to act in all matters pertaining to the contemplated University until another meeting of the Board."

3. The following resolution was passed: "*Resolved*, That in accepting the grant of Hon. S. A. Douglas the Trustees record their high appreciation of his munificence and their cordial interest in carrying out the noble object which it contemplated."

The land given by Mr. Douglas as the site for the proposed institution, about 10 acres, was located on the west side of Cottage Grove Avenue a little more than 200 feet north of Thirty-fifth Street. It was a solid block of ground a little over 600 feet square, the eastern half of which was covered by a grove of large oaks. Ten or twelve hundred feet to the east were the "shining levels of the lake." In 1856 this location was very much in the country.

The writer of this story became a student in the young University in September, 1859, at the time it began its work in the building then just completed. The street cars, then horse cars, ran on Cottage Grove Avenue only to Thirty-first Street. On the corner of Thirty-fifth Street was a small dingy saloon, appropriately named "The Shades," the site of the present Douglas House. On Thirty-fifth Street there was but one building, a small cottage, between "The Shades" and State Street, nearly a mile west. There were a few houses to the southeast, Cleaverville, but I recall none to the south or southwest, and only two or three south of Thirty-first Street to the north. East of the University between Cottage Grove Avenue and the lake was "Okenwald," the residence of Mr. Douglas.

It will be recalled that at the first meeting of the Trustees held July 14, 1856, an Executive Committee was appointed. No other meeting of the Board was held for ten and a half months. The Executive Committee was clothed with very extensive powers and conducted most of the business of the University throughout the thirty years of its history. Except in special exigencies the Board of Trustees met

only once a year. The Executive Committee held frequent meetings and practically guided the destinies of the institution. If its records were available a reasonably satisfactory history of the University could be written, but unfortunately they are not. Those of the period between 1856 and October, 1871, were destroyed in the great fire. Those of the period between October, 1871, and the final closing of the University in 1886 were in the hands of the last secretary of the Committee, Mr. A. J. Wise. The secretary of the Board of Trustees, Mr. O. W. Barrett, committed the records of the Board to the present University of Chicago, where they will be permanently preserved. Unhappily it did not occur to Mr. Wise to do this with the much more important records of the Executive Committee, nor did it occur to anyone to ask him to do so. Mr. Wise is no longer living, and what became of these important records is not known. This statement is written in the hope that it may possibly lead to their discovery and transfer to the new University.

After the first meeting of the Board of the Old University, July 14, 1856, the Executive Committee, then appointed, immediately took up the work intrusted to it with great vigor. Two important initial steps were taken.

As the most immediately important, Dr. J. C. Burroughs and Rev. J. B. Olcott were appointed agents to undertake the raising of $250,000 as a building and endowment fund. It seems to have been understood that Dr. Burroughs should do the work in Chicago and Mr. Olcott should labor in other parts of Illinois. There were other temporary assistants in securing subscriptions, but these two men were the responsible permanent workers. They labored with great efficiency. A most liberal interest was aroused in the city and throughout the state. Chicago was a small city and there was little wealth among the Baptists of Illinois, but so great was the interest in the founding of the University that before the first of October, less than three months after the agents began their work, they reported that $100,000 had been subscribed. It was proposed that the full sum of $250,000 should be secured in subscriptions by April 1, 1857. As late as January of that year it was hoped that this might be accomplished. But the projectors of the new institution had set a mark too high for the young city and state community to reach in so short a period as nine months. Indeed they never reached the goal they had fixed. They labored on heroically and at the end of two years, in July, 1858, reported that the city subscription had reached $115,000 and the country pledges $90,000, or

a total of $205,000. I repeat that they labored heroically, for a succession of heartbreaking discouragements attended almost every step of their progress.

The first thing that interfered was the extraordinary disfavor into which Senator Douglas had fallen—a disfavor that was temporary, indeed, but that lasted throughout their initial efforts and seriously crippled them. Mr. Douglas had made the worst mistake of his political life in securing the repeal of the Missouri Compromise and opening the territories to slavery, and throughout the three years from 1855 to 1858 was the most unpopular and deeply distrusted politician in the entire North. He nobly redeemed himself in the spring of 1858 by saving Kansas from having a slave constitution fraudulently forced upon her, and regained the confidence and favor he had forfeited. But for nearly or quite three years the great majority of the northern people regarded him with distrust and abhorrence. It was during the last two of these three years that the new University, the site for which he had given and of which he was regarded as the founder, made its initial campaign for funds. It immediately encountered indifference, prejudice, and opposition because of its connection with Mr. Douglas. Those who condemned his political policies found it hard to contribute to an institution he had founded. His enemies attributed unworthy motives to him. They declared he had given the site to increase the value of his adjacent property and to bolster up his political fortunes. To bring the University into disrepute they sought to convince the public that its name was Douglas University. Mr. Douglas was president of its Board of Trustees, and they charged that his influence in its councils was controlling and it was to be used as one of the stepping-stones of his ambition.

These attacks became so serious and injurious that on August 8, 1857, Mr. Douglas wrote the following letter, which, in addition to being essential to this story, is interesting as a part of the biography of a great man:

CHICAGO, Aug. 8, 1857

Rev. J. C. Burroughs

My DEAR SIR: I have learned with surprise and regret that many persons and newspapers, opposed to me in politics have allowed their partisan feelings and prejudices to influence their action to the extent of endeavoring to injure and perhaps destroy the Institution over which you have been chosen to preside for no other reason than that the ground upon which it was to be established was owned and donated by me. So long as their efforts were expended in abusing me and maligning my motives by attributing to me the

design of making a pecuniary speculation under the veil of benevolence, I was content to remain silent and trust to the people of Illinois, with whom I have lived and whom I have endeavored to serve with fidelity and honor for nearly a quarter of a century, to do justice to my motives and vindicate my character.

But when my enemies go so far as to assail the Institution itself and endeavor to marshall the forces and exert the influence of a powerful political party to destroy its usefulness merely because I donated the grounds and own the surrounding lands, I feel it my duty, so far as I have the power, to obviate the objections. With this view I propose to you, as President of the University of Chicago, and through you to the board of trustees, that in lieu of the lands which I have donated, I will refund all monies which have been expended thereon, including the cost of laying the corner stone, and in addition I will subscribe and pay fifty thousand dollars toward establishing the University upon the plan which has been adopted on any other site which the board of trustees may select within the state of Illinois—the said sum of fifty thousand dollars to be expended in the endowment of a Department or School of Law in said University. In the event that the board of trustees, at their next meeting, shall accept this proposition as a measure more favorable to the success of the institution than the donation of the present site, I shall hold myself in readiness, on one day's notice, to give ample security for its faithful performance on my part.

I have the honor to be very respectfully your friend and servant,

S. A. DOUGLAS

On September 2, 1857, the Trustees held a meeting and unanimously declined the proposition of the foregoing letter. The matter was felt to be so important and a proper understanding of the case by the public so necessary to the welfare of the institution that a committee was appointed "to prepare a reply to the letter of Judge Douglas." It was a committee of distinguished men, the chairman being Senator James R. Doolittle, of Wisconsin, who wrote the call for the National Convention that nominated Abraham Lincoln for the presidency in 1860 and was the author of the famous epigram at the time of Mr. Lincoln's renomination in 1864: "I believe in God Almighty and under him I believe in Abraham Lincoln." The letter is of such historical interest that, omitting the formal opening, it is here reproduced:

CHICAGO, Sept. 3, 1857

Hon. S. A. Douglas

SIR: . . . . . .

The proposition is declined, because in their judgment there is no other site so eligible for a University in Chicago, or near enough to Chicago to command

the local patronage of the city; because a removal of the site away from Chicago would involve a change of the corporate name; because it would invalidate a great proportion of all the subscriptions for the erection of the buildings and for the endowment, now amounting to $160,000.

The remark contained in your letter that many persons and newspapers opposed to you in politics have allowed their partisan feeling and prejudice to influence their action to the extent of endeavoring to injure and perhaps destroy the Institution for no other reason than that the ground upon which it is established was owned and donated by you calls upon the Board to state briefly their true position. Composed, as the Board is, of members of all political parties and of several religious denominations, it is only necessary to say that their action as a Board in the original selection of the present site was entirely unanimous, as well as the vote declining your present proposition, to satisfy all persons of all parties that no political, partisan, or sectional feeling or prejudices have in the slightest degree influenced their determination.

At the time when the site was originally selected, there were several propositions, besides the one made by you, presented for the consideration of the Board and the selection of the one donated by you was made unanimously and upon the ground of its superior eligibility only, without any reference whatever to the political character of the donor. The establishment of the University of Chicago was looked upon by the Board as a matter above and beyond all political considerations, not as a thing for the moment, but for all time, not as a thing which concerns you individually, or any other persons, but the youth of Chicago and the northwest generally, not only of the Chicago of today, but of that Chicago which in the fullness of time will become a city of which the most sanguine can hardly now form an adequate conception. To enable them to accomplish that high and liberal purpose they have steadily sought and obtained subscriptions and donations from the men of all parties and of all denominations. And among others your very liberal donation was accepted after mature deliberation unanimously as the most eligible location for the University. In acting upon your present proposition the Board have again considered the matter and are still of the same unanimous opinion.

It is impossible, therefore, for them to see any just ground for arraying any political or partisan prejudices against the Institution itself because you were the owner and were pleased to become the donor of the most eligible site for the buildings of the University.

But even if it were possible that some such prejudice might be arrayed against the Institution, it must, as it rests on no good foundation, be merely temporary. It would, moreover, be little less than a betrayal of the sacred trust committed to their hands, accompanied by a loss of all self-respect on the part of the Board of Trustees, to yield their unanimous judgment to mere temporary personal or political consideration.

An additional and painful consideration for declining your proposition is that if the trustees should now yield their judgment and change the site upon the ground alleged that many of your political opponents would be hostile to the University unless the site were changed, the Board would, from that moment, have departed from their settled determination not to be influenced by political considerations and would by their own act become self-convicted of a charge now wholly groundless.

It is to be hoped that this explanation will remove all occasion for opposition or prejudice against the University, if any such be seriously entertained, and that all patriotic citizens and all the public journals of Chicago and the Northwest may give to this Institution their earnest and hearty support.

Respectfully yours,

J. R. DOOLITTLE, *Chairman*
JOHN M. WILSON
ROBERT H. CLARKSON
H. A. TUCKER
L. D. BOONE

This correspondence and the action taken in connection with it did much to clear the air and put an end to the political assaults, though it continued for a time to be a habit with some persons and some newspapers, instead of giving the University its true name, to call it the Douglas University. But, though this political prejudice and opposition were most injurious at the critical moment in the founding of the University, depriving it of many thousands of dollars that were vitally necessary, the Committee was quite right in believing that it would be short-lived. Three and a half years later Senator Douglas died honored by every loyal citizen for his patriotic course in standing side by side with President Lincoln and contending, like the giant he was, for the preservation of the Union. And thus it came to pass that the connection of Stephen A. Douglas with the new institution, which for a time threatened the enterprise with disaster, came to be one of its enduring glories. The relation was honorable to the University and to the man alike.

But this partisan political attack was not the only nor the worst assault on the life of the new institution. That was the panic of 1857, one of the most disastrous in the history of our country. It fell upon Chicago with distressing severity. It struck the city in the midst of a real estate boom. "The effects on the real estate market were fearful, and the building business suffered correspondingly. . . . . Great numbers of workers left the city for want of employment." Great

numbers of houses and stores were vacant and rents were reduced and those who owned real property were impoverished. Business of every kind was prostrated.

This storm broke as the University was struggling to complete the initial $250,000 subscription. Added to the partisan political attack the panic proved well-nigh fatal. It became impossible to get new subscriptions. Men who had already subscribed were reduced to bankruptcy, and not twenty-five cents on the dollar was ever realized on this first subscription of $160,000. J. B. Olcott was six years in the service of the University. He reported that he had secured subscriptions amounting to $88,000. At the end of his service his books showed that he had collected $22,316.40. Out of this came his salary of $1,500 a year and the considerable expenses of the agency. At the end of nine years Dr. Burroughs had collected $40,645.84 on the subscriptions secured by him during that entire period.

In explaining the difficulties under which these men labored it should not be forgotten that in 1861 the Civil War came on and was for two years as fatal to the work of getting subscriptions and making collections as the panic had been. The courage and persistence of the Trustees and their agents in the face of these repeated and overwhelming discouragements were beyond all praise. It is evident from what has been said that from the beginning the Trustees never had any funds at their disposal. They had large promises to pay, but no money in the treasury. They were encouraged to go on by the fact that they had a very considerable subscription, secured and given in good faith, which they believed would eventually be paid.

It will be recalled that after the first meeting of the preliminary Board on July 14, 1856, there were two important steps for the Executive Committee to take. The story of the first of these, the canvass for subscriptions, has been told. The second was the securing of a charter. Since the adoption of the constitution of Illinois of 1870 corporations are formed under the general law. In 1856 special charters were granted by the legislature and the charter of an educational institution could be amended only by action of the legislature of the state. Who wrote the charter of the new institution does not appear. It was enacted by the legislature in January, 1857, and approved by the first Republican governor of the state, William H. Bissell.

The charter in providing for a board of trustees of thrity-six members (afterward increased to forty-three) also provided:

A board of regents, to consist of the governor of the State of Illinois, the lieutenant governor, the secretary of state, the speaker of the House of Repre-

sentatives, the superintendent of public instruction, the judges of the United States Court for the northern and southern districts of Illinois, and the circuit court of Cook County and of the Cook County court of common pleas, and the mayor of the City of Chicago, by virtue of their offices, and of fifteen other persons to be appointed by the board of trustees.

The duties of the regents were to visit the University, advise the Trustees, and report any violations of the charter to the legislature. The Board of Regents was a fifth wheel in the coach, but its appointment indicated the great expectations of the projectors of the University as to its future. The history of the institution showed that there were plenty of persons ready, without appointment to that dignity, to perform all the duties assigned to the regents.

Section 4 of the charter provided as follows:

Any billiard room, bowling alley, race course, or other device or instrument for gaming, or any brothel or house of ill fame, or place where intoxicating liquors are sold or furnished (except for medicinal or mechanical purposes), within one mile of the site of said University, is hereby declared a nuisance and subject to abatement as such.

From the first this provision was a dead letter, quite inoperative. The saloon called "The Shades" was never interfered with, at least during my time, from 1859 to 1862.

The governor of the state was made ex officio the chancellor of the University and the lieutenant governor vice-chancellor. I do not think they ever had any duties to discharge.

It was further provided:

Otherwise than that the majority of the trustees and the President of the University shall forever be of the same religious denomination as the majority of this corporation [the majority of the corporators being Baptists], no religious test or particular religious profession shall ever be held as a requisite for admission to any department of the University or for election to any professorship or other place of honor or emolument in it, but the same shall be open alike to persons of any religious faith or profession.

Section 10 provided:

The tract of land, not to exceed one hundred and sixty acres, on which the University is erected, belonging to the said University, is hereby declared exempt from taxation or assessment for all or any purposes whatever.

No tax exemption beyond this was enjoyed by the institution.

The first meetings of the Board of Trustees, after the granting of the charter by the legislature, were held May 21 and 22, 1857. The additional trustees required by the charter and the elective regents

were chosen. Mr. Douglas was made president of the Board of Trustees and continued in that position till his death. Plans for a college building prepared by Boyington and Wheelock, architects, were presented and adopted, and the Executive Committee was "directed to take immediate measures for the erection of the building." It must be remembered that this action was taken before the panic struck the country. Liberal subscriptions were being received and it was believed there would be ample funds in hand for putting up the building. It was determined, therefore, to celebrate the Fourth of July, 1857, by laying the cornerstone, the center of the main building to be in the center of the site.

At the exercises attending the laying of the stone Judge Drummond, who was one of the regents, presided. Senator Douglas was present and spoke briefly, Hon. I. N. Arnold making the principal address. It was a great occasion and there was a large attendance. A report of the proceedings says:

> Thousands of the citizens of Chicago went down by the special trains on the Illinois Central Railroad, or in their own carriages, and remained to the conclusion of the lengthy services. . . . . A large delegation of the Masonic Lodge in this city was present by invitation and the stone was laid with the exercises usual in that order.

A lunch was served by the women interested in the new enterprise and many after-dinner addresses were made. It was an all-day celebration and hope beat high in all hearts. So hopeful indeed did the prospects seem in July, 1857, that bids were accepted for the stone and mason and carpenter work aggregating $137,700. This would have made the completed buildings cost perhaps $200,000. But then came a pause. Before work was begun the disastrous panic of that fateful year developed and, though even in September the Trustees still hoped to go forward with the building, the storm in the financial world paralyzed their efforts and brought the whole enterprise to a standstill for a full year. It was not until July 15, 1858, when a meeting of the Trustees was again held, that courage was gathered for a new beginning. Dr. J. A. Smith, editor of *The Christian Times*, now *The Standard*, was the recording secretary of the meeting. In an editorial of the issue of July 21 he said:

> The subject principally requiring attention at the late board meeting was the question whether to proceed with the building, so as to open in the fall. It was urged by the Executive Committee in its report that these needful steps could not longer be deferred without periling the whole enterprise.

Such, too, seemed the unanimous opinion of all present. While this subject was under discussion, full statements were made by Brn. Burroughs and Olcott of the present state of the endowment subscription. It appears that in this city something over $115,000 has been subscribed; in the country about $90,000. For present use in the erection of buildings it had been ascertained that some $20,000 of the city subscription is available. With this financial basis, it seemed no longer a question what was the true policy of the Board, and it was unanimously resolved that the South Wing and Corridor of the building should be put immediately under contract. This has since been done, and the stone for the work is already, we suppose, being brought on the ground.

On the showing made the prospect did, indeed, seem to be hopeful for the erection of a part of the building which would not cost more than $30,000. But the $20,000 depended on as immediately available did not prove to be so. Almost no part of that sum proved available. But the contracts had been let, work had begun, and the contractors must be paid. At a meeting of the Board held September 7, 1858, therefore, steps were taken to borrow money by mortgaging the University site. The ground had been given by Mr. Douglas with the provision that it should never be mortgaged. He now withdrew this condition, as appears from resolutions passed by the Trustees at a meeting held the following day, September 8. They were as follows:

Resolved, That the thanks of the Board be presented to Hon. S. A. Douglas for his liberality in waiving the terms of the original contract for the conveyance of the University Grounds and giving us a deed of the lands donated by him for the University.

Resolved, That the Executive Committee of the Board be authorized to execute a Bond to Judge Douglas as shall be satisfactory to him and approved by the said Executive Committee for the faithful carrying out of the University enterprise according to the spirit of the original contract.

Authority was also given to the committee to issue bonds to the amount of $25,000 bearing 10 per cent interest, secured by mortgage on the site and building and further guaranteed by the Trustees and other friends of the University. These guarantors were secured by placing $30,000 of the subscriptions in trust for their benefit in the hands of William Jones, for whom the South Wing, then under construction, was eight years later named. From the day this loan was made the Old University of Chicago was never out of debt, and every year saw it a little more deeply involved.

The work of instruction was begun September 29, 1858, on the first floor of St. Paul's Universalist Church, corner of Wabash Avenue

and Van Buren Street, the teachers being Le Roy Satterlee and Albert H. Mixer. There was a small Freshman class and a considerable number of preparatory students.

The completion of the South Wing was much delayed, but it was finally finished and was dedicated with elaborate exercises July 21, 1859. Dr. A. C. Kendrick came from Rochester, New York, to speak. The dedicatory address was delivered by Senator J. R. Doolittle, and a historical statement made by William Jones. The new dining-room was opened and a multitude fed. The attendance was so large that the exercises were adjourned from the chapel to the oak grove in front of the building. Before the day was over a dozen speeches had been made, one of them by William Bross, one of the proprietors of *The Press and Tribune.*

The South Wing, afterward Jones Hall, of the great building planned for the University but never completed was a four-story and basement structure of rough-faced limestone, designed for a dormitory, with an extension northward two stories lower. This north extension contained the chapel, two or three recitation rooms, the president's office, and apartments in which in the earlier years the president and some of the professors and their families lived, giving the building something of the atmosphere of a home. There was a large dining-room in the basement which, however, was entirely above the surface of the ground.

Little has been said thus far of Dr. John C. Burroughs, the first president of the University. He had come to Chicago in 1852 as pastor of the First Baptist Church. In the latter part of 1855 he was elected president of Shurtleff College, Upper Alton, Illinois. Before he had finally accepted the position, though he had resigned his pastorate with that purpose in view, he became interested, as has been already told, in a possible University in Chicago, entered into negotiation with Mr. Douglas, and in the spring of 1856 received from him the proffer of a site for such an institution. Dr. Burroughs was one of the corporators who accepted the site and secured the University charter. After the first meeting of the corporators he entered actively into the work of securing subscriptions. On July 3, 1857, the day before the laying of the cornerstone, he was elected president of the institution by a unanimous vote of the Trustees present at the meeting. It is evident from the record that he had urged the Trustees and continued to urge them to seek for the presidency the most highly trained and competent educator they could secure. In furtherance of this view he now wrote them as follows:

CHICAGO, July 6, 1857

To the Board of Trustees of the University of Chicago

GENTLEMEN: Through your Committee, Messrs. Woodworth, Walker and Hoard, I am informed that at your meeting on the 3rd inst. you elected me to the Presidency of the University. I need not assure you that the kind consideration implied in the action of the Board is held by me in grateful appreciation. At the same time I must refer the Board to the views which I so fully expressed previous to your action, as those by which I still feel that I must be governed in relation to the subject.

To this it should be added that a number of members of the Board were absent and that neither in the vote of adjournment nor in the notification of the meeting was there any intimation that the election of a President would be under consideration. On so important a matter I think there should be the opportunity for the fullest possible expression, not only of the members of the Board, but of the patrons and friends of the University whom they represent. And I do not feel that I can accept a place which is not assigned me as the result of such an expression.

Allow me therefore to suggest that an adjourned meeting of the Board be held . . . . at which it shall be understood that this subject will be considered. In the meantime I shall hold the subject under advisement, and will endeavor to be prepared if not to enter the service of the Board in the position which they have assigned me, to recommend some course which will promise better for the interests of the University.

Very truly yours,

J. C. BURROUGHS

The question of the presidency now remained in abeyance for fourteen months. The closing down of the panic made it a question whether there would be any University. Meantime Dr. Burroughs remained the protagonist of the movement and by his energy and wisdom kept it going. But on September 8, 1858, at a meeting called to consider this matter among others, the Trustees again elected Dr. Burroughs president by a unanimous vote. At a meeting held September 21, however, he formally declined the position and recommended a professor in Brown University for the office. A committee was thereupon appointed, which the next day reported as follows:

Having given patient and prayerful attention to the subject of the Presidency and Dr. Burroughs' declination of it and having weighed his reasons, we recommend the adoption of the following resolutions:

"*Resolved*, That, while we estimate duly the self-sacrificing motives which influence Dr. Burroughs in this as in all his other efforts to promote the welfare

of this institution, we are still of the opinion that he can best advance the prosperity of the University by filling the Presidential Chair.

"*Resolved*, therefore, that we urge upon him the withdrawal of his declinature and his acceptance of this office."

This report, with the resolutions, was unanimously adopted and the same committee was instructed to inform Dr. Burroughs of this action. The committee performed this duty without delay, and a little later in the same meeting Dr. Burroughs came in and

stated to the Board that he had received from the Committee appointed for that purpose, information of its recent action with regard to the Presidency. He wished to assure the Board that his hesitation in this matter had not arisen from any unwillingness to perform any service which the interests of the University may require of him, but from the convictions of his own judgment. If the Board should insist upon their own view of the subject, and still press the duties of the Presidency upon him, he would not continue to decline. He still requested, however, that his declinature should be allowed to stand, and that, for an arrangement which may meet the views of all, the Board elect Dr. Wayland as President, with an Assistant President.

At a session of the Board held later on the same day, September 22, 1858, it was voted to accede to this request and Dr. Wayland was elected president and Dr. Burroughs vice-president by a unanimous vote.

Dr. Francis Wayland was the great man of the Baptist demomination and one of the great men of the country. He had recently retired from the presidency of Brown University, after a service of twenty-eight years. He was sixty-two years of age and might reasonably be expected to serve the new institution with vigor as well as with distinguished ability for ten or fifteen years. On the ground, however, of "existing engagements and the state of his health" he declined the election. On this announcement being made to the Board, at a meeting held July 22, 1859, Dr. Burroughs was for the fourth time elected president, at a salary "for the present" of $2,000 and immediately accepted. He continued in the office till 1873, a period of fourteen years. Dr. Burroughs was, in 1859, forty years of age. The best years of his life he gave with unstinted and self-sacrificing devotion to the institution. To him more than to any other man it owed its origin and its final establishment. He was the logical candidate for the presidency, though the Trustees found themselves compelled to force the honor and responsibility upon him.

The biographies of the Trustees of the first years of the Old University would form a fairly complete history of early Chicago. Amogn them were not only some of the earliest settlers but also some of the most eminent citizens. John H. Kinzie, son of John Kinzie, often called the father of Chicago, had been a resident from the first years of the century. William Jones, for whom Jones Hall was named, came to Chicago in 1831 when its inhabitants numbered only a few score. William B. Ogden came in 1833 when it was only an inconsiderable village. He became its first mayor when it grew to the dignity of a city and was, perhaps, its foremost citizen for many years. After the death of Mr. Douglas he served the University as president of its Board of Trustees till his own death in 1877. James H. Woodworth became a resident of the little village in the same year with Mr. Ogden, 1833. He was one of the early aldermen of the new city, was a member of both houses of the state legislature, was twice mayor of Chicago and served the city in Congress. For many years he was the University's treasurer. Dr. L. D. Boone, who became a resident in 1836 and was one of the most active of the Trustees, was successively city physician, alderman, and mayor. Samuel Hoard, one of the most faithful Trustees, served the public in the state senate, was clerk of the Circuit Court, member of the board of education, president of the department of health, and city postmaster during the administration of Mr. Lincoln. The name of J. Y. Scammon is built into almost every part of the history of Chicago for nearly fifty years after 1833. He served the University with extraordinary devotion. Thomas Hoyne served the public as a private citizen and in many positions of public trust and was a devot d Trustee of the University from its inception. Walter S. Gurnee was another distinguished citizen, being twice elected mayor of the city. Charles N. Holden, who opposed receiving the grant of the site because he foresaw that the popular hatred of Mr. Douglas then prevailing would imperil the success of the enterprise, became one of the first and was for many years one of the most influential Trustees. He came to Chicago in 1837, was alderman in 1855 and city treasurer in 1857. It was said that he selected the location and drew the plans for the famous Wigwam in which Mr. Lincoln was nominated for the presidency in 1860. He was a member of the committee that erected the building. He became one of the founders of the Theological Seminary which is now the Divinity School of the present University of Chicago. A son and grandson were later Trustees of the present University. Dr. Justin A. Smith was for more than forty years editor

of the leading Baptist paper of the West, now *The Standard*, and during the entire history of the Old University was one of its most devoted friends. Charles Walker, whose son George C. Walker was later a Trustee of the present University and built Walker Museum, was among the foremost business men of the city and was vice-president of the Board of Trustees of the first University. Mr. Walker was the first shipper of hides (1836) and the first shipper of wheat (1838) to the East, one of the organizers of the Chicago Board of Trade and of the first Chicago railroad, the Galena and Chicago Union. One of the most eminent men among the Trustees was James R. Doolittle, who, after serving Wisconsin for two years as a judge and twelve years as a member of the United States Senate, became a member of the Chicago bar. There were many other able and well-known men among the trustees. Chief among them was the founder of the institution, Stephen A. Douglas. When Mr. Douglas donated the site he had been a resident of Chicago only nine years, having made his home in the city in 1847. In 1856, when he gave the site, he was serving his second term as United States senator from Illinois. He was again elected senator three years later after the memorable Lincoln-Douglas debate of 1858. He was chosen president of the Board of Trustees of the University on its organization in May, 1857, and continued in that office till his death in June, 1861. It must be conceded that the University began its history with a notable group of men among its trustees.

The work of instruction in the newly completed South Wing of the ambitious building projected, but never finished, began in September, 1859. The students' rooms had been most comfortably furnished by the women of the city and state. Though some preliminary work had been done the preceding year the organized college work began in 1859. It was the good fortune of the writer of this sketch to enter the University as a Freshman at that precise time. I was admitted without examination, being required only to tell what preparatory work I had done. My chum and I had as our room in the dormitory Number 1 in the northeast corner of the fourth (top) floor of the dormitory. Here over the tops of the oaks we had an inspiring outlook over the great lake. The study was large, lighted by gas, and had connected with it two single bedrooms. Students and professors took their meals together in the basement dining-room, which was entirely above ground and both light and spacious. The scale of charges in the University was absurdly low. Board was $2 a week, tuition $50 a

year, and room rent $15 a year. There were four classes, Sophomore, Freshman, higher Academic, and lower Academic.

A law department had been established only a few weeks prior to the opening in 1859, so that there were also classes in law. A contribution of $5,000 from Thomas Hoyne had encouraged the Trustees to establish the department. Judge Henry Booth was brought from Poughkeepsie, New York, as head of the school.

The first catalogue of the University was published toward the end of this first year, in the spring of 1860, and showed the faculty to be as follows: Rev. John C. Burroughs, President, and Professor of Moral and Intellectual Philosophy; Albert H. Mixer, A.M., Professor of the Greek Language and Literature (Professor Mixer also discharged the duties of Professor of Modern Languages, French, and German); Alonzo J. Sawyer, A.M., Professor of Mathematics; Edwin C. Johnson, A.M., Professor of the Latin Language and Literature; J. H. McChesney, A.M., Professor of Chemistry, Geology, Mineralogy, and Agriculture; Henry Booth, A.M., Hoyne Professor of International and Constitutional Law; James Sylla, A.M., Tutor in the English Language and Literature; Hon. Digby V. Bell, Professor of Commerical Science; William Tillinghast, Professor of Vocal Music.

The active faculty in the college department consisted of the president and Messrs. Mixer, Sawyer, Johnson, and Sylla.

Dr. Burroughs had been a pastor and made no pretensions to exact or extensive scholarship. He was not an inspiring teacher and his time was much occupied with the distressing financial difficulties encountered in founding the institution. He was a genial, pleasant, kindly man, well liked by the students. Professor Sawyer was a fine mathematician and an excellent drillmaster. Mr. Johnson, the Professor of Latin, was a gentle, quiet, scholarly man. He was physically frail and lived only a few years. No doubt his lack of energetic, aggressive qualities was due to the frailty of his body. He was very much of a gentleman and was an excellent if not an inspiring teacher. Mr. Sylla taught English and elocution. At that time English occupied no such place in the college curriculum as it does now. Only four terms during the four years were given to studies in English and rhetoric. I found my ideal of a teacher and a cultivated gentleman in A. H. Mixer, Professor of Greek and the Modern Languages. He impressed his students with the fulness of his knowledge and inspired them as students by his enthusiasm as a teacher. I admired him greatly and have always remembered him with gratitude.

The number of students in attendance the first year, 1859–60, was 178, divided as follows:

Law Students	48
Sophomores	8
Freshmen	12
Higher Academics	21
Lower Academics	89

With the opening of the work of instruction in the newly completed building the account of the founding of the first University of Chicago properly ends. A hundred details might be added, but perhaps they would not increase the interest or value of the story. Great hopes attended the opening of the new institution. The students were proud to be members of the first classes of what they were confident would become a leading University. Chicago regarded it with pride and expectation, and all its friends rejoiced in the assurance that they had laid the foundations of an institution that would grow with the growing city and become one of the great universities of the world.

IN MEMORY OF MEMBERS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO FALLEN IN THE WAR

IT IS FOR US TO BE HERE DEDICATED TO THE GREAT TASK REMAINING BEFORE US—THAT FROM THESE HONORED DEAD WE TAKE INCREASED DEVOTION TO THAT CAUSE FOR WHICH THEY GAVE THE LAST FULL MEASURE OF DEVOTION—THAT WE HERE HIGHLY RESOLVE THAT THESE DEAD SHALL NOT HAVE DIED IN VAIN, THAT THIS NATION, UNDER GOD, SHALL HAVE A NEW BIRTH OF FREEDOM, AND THAT GOVERNMENT OF THE PEOPLE, BY THE PEOPLE, FOR THE PEOPLE, SHALL NOT PERISH FROM THE EARTH.

—*Abraham Lincoln*

IN MEMORIAM

RAYMOND ARTHUR ANDERSON
1912, 1913, 1914, 1915, Ph.B. 1915, 1916

LESTER CLEMENT BARTON
1906, 1907

JOHN KENNETH BROCK
1911, 1912, 1913, 1914, Ph.B. 1914

CLARENCE ALEXANDER BRODIE
1914, 1915, 1916

THEODORE HARVEY CLARK
1914, 1915, 1916

HEDLEY HEBER COOPER
1907, 1908

EDWARD RAYMOND DEBOTH
1907, 1908, 1909, 1910

CARL CONRAD DITMAR
1917, 1918

MARTIN LELAND DOLLAHAN
1912, 1913, 1914, 1915, S.B. 1915

JOHN ARTHUR DUGGAN
1916, 1917

ROBERT HARLAN FLANSBURG
1916, 1917

HARRY WILKERSON FORD
1900, 1901, 1902, 1903, 1904

JASPER JOSEPH FFRENCH
1914

BYRON MALCOLM GENDREAU
1913, 1914, 1915

JOHN MARION GOAD
1916, 1917

WALTER WOOD GODDARD, JR.
1909, 1911, 1912, 1913

HAROLD ERNEST GOETTLER
1910, 1911, 1912, 1913, 1914, S.B. 1914

EL ROY DAVID GOLDING
1911, 1912, 1913, 1914, 1915, Ph.B. 1915

DAVID BULLOCK HARRIS
1915, 1916, 1917

PHILIP WILLIAM HARTZELL
1916, 1917, 1918

STILLMAN BINGHAM JAMIESON, JR.
1917, 1918

ELMER LEOPOLD KRAUSE
1915, 1916, 1917, 1918, Ph.B. 1918

LLOYD ERNEST LEDUC
1911, 1912, 1913, 1914, S.B. 1914

GEORGE PHELPS LEGGETT
1915, 1916, 1917

WARREN BROWER LEONARD
1910, 1911, 1912, 1913, 1914, Ph.B. 1914

JOHN SIMON LEWIS, JR.
1894, 1895, 1896, A.B. 1896

COUNT DE ROCHAMBEAU LOVELLETTE
1911, 1912, 1913

THOMAS CANNON LYONS
1916, 1917

JOEL FURNAS McDAVID
1913, 1914, Ph.B. 1914, 1915, 1916, J.D. 1916

ROWLAND HAZARD McLAUGHLIN
1917

BERNARD FRANCIS McMEEL
1916, 1917

FRANK CHARLES MARSHALL
1884, 1885, 1886, 1887, 1888, D.B. 1888

HARRY PAUL MARTIN
1913, 1914, 1915, 1917, S.M. 1917

SEYMOUR MASON
1914, 1915, 1916, 1917

RICHARD PERRY MATTHEWS
1912, 1913, 1914, 1915, 1916, Ph.B. 1916

WILLIAM FENIMORE MERRILL
1908, 1909, 1910, 1911

GILBERT COCHRAN MOSS
1916, 1917, 1918

ONA JEFFERSON MYERS
1911, 1912, 1913, Ph.B. 1913, 1914, J.D. 1914

EARL HENRY NEVILLE
1913, 1914

FRANK JOHN OLIVER
1916, 1917

HAWLEY BROWNELL OLMSTEAD
1916, 1917

EDWARD ORR
1915, 1916, 1917, Ph.B. 1917

ROY BENNETT PACE
1911, 1914, 1915

WALTER SMITH POAGUE
1910, 1911, 1912, 1913, 1914, Ph.B. 1914

GEORGE JOSEPH READ
1906, 1907, 1908, 1909, 1910, 1911, A.B. 1911

CHARLES EDWARD REISS
1912, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918

JOHN IRVING ROBERTS
1916, 1917

JOHN CHESTER SANDALL
1915, 1916, 1917, Ph.B. 1917

PHILIP FRANK SCHAFFNER
1903, 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907, S.B. 1907

WALTER BEAUMONT SCHAFER
1913, 1914, 1915, 1916, 1917

LAURENS CORNING SHULL
1912, 1913, 1914, 1915, 1916, S.B. 1916

HARRY HENRY STRAUCH
1913, 1914, 1915, 1916, S.B. 1916

CEDRIC BARTON STROHM
1913, 1914, 1915, 1916, 1917, S.B. 1917

AUGUST LEO SUNDVALL
1915, 1916, 1917

CHARLES OLIVER TAYLOR, JR.
1913, 1914

GLENN IRVING TENNEY
1915, 1916, 1917

PRESTON EDDY TUPPER
1916

ORVILLE CHASE WETMORE
1913, 1914, 1915

WILLIAM JEWELL WHYTE
1915, 1916, 1917

CHARLES HENRY WILBER
1900, 1901, 1902, 1903, 1904, 1905, Ph.B. 1905, 1906, 1907, J.D. 1907

HOWARD WOODHEAD
1896, 1897, 1898, 1900, A.B. 1901, 1902, 1903, 1904, 1905, 1906, 1907, Ph.D. 1909

THE UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL

PAUL CODY BENTLEY
Harvard University

PAUL GREENWOOD COX

THOMAS EDWARD NALY HEFFERAN
University of Wisconsin

FRYAR PATRICK HUTCHINSON

ALEXANDER AGNEW McCORMICK, JR.
Yale University

ROWLAND HAZARD McLAUGHLIN
Brown University

WALTER SMITH POAGUE
The University of Chicago

WELLBORN SAXON PRIDDY

SONS OF TRUSTEES AND MEMBERS OF THE FACULTIES

ROBERT MORSS LOVETT, JR.

KENNETH MACLEISH

HARRISON FOSTER

ROWLAND HAZARD McLAUGHLIN

The year of residence at the University is indicated by the date after each name. The date of receiving a degree is also indicated. This list is doubtless incomplete. Corrections and additions may be sent to the Office of the President.

A service was held Sunday, May 18, at four o'clock in the Frank Dickinson Bartlett Gymnasium, in memory of members of the University of Chicago fallen in the war. At the north end of the gymnasium large American flags were draped about the University coat-of-arms. From the railing of the running track depended service flags of the fraternities, many of them bearing gold stars. As the solemnity and beauty of the music gripped the hearts of the audience, it seemed to some a pity that the services could not have been held in the beautiful new chapel. One deeply moved remarked, however, that the beautiful chapel would not afford a setting more instinct with significance than the gymnasium where so many soldiers had been made physically fit for their great service.

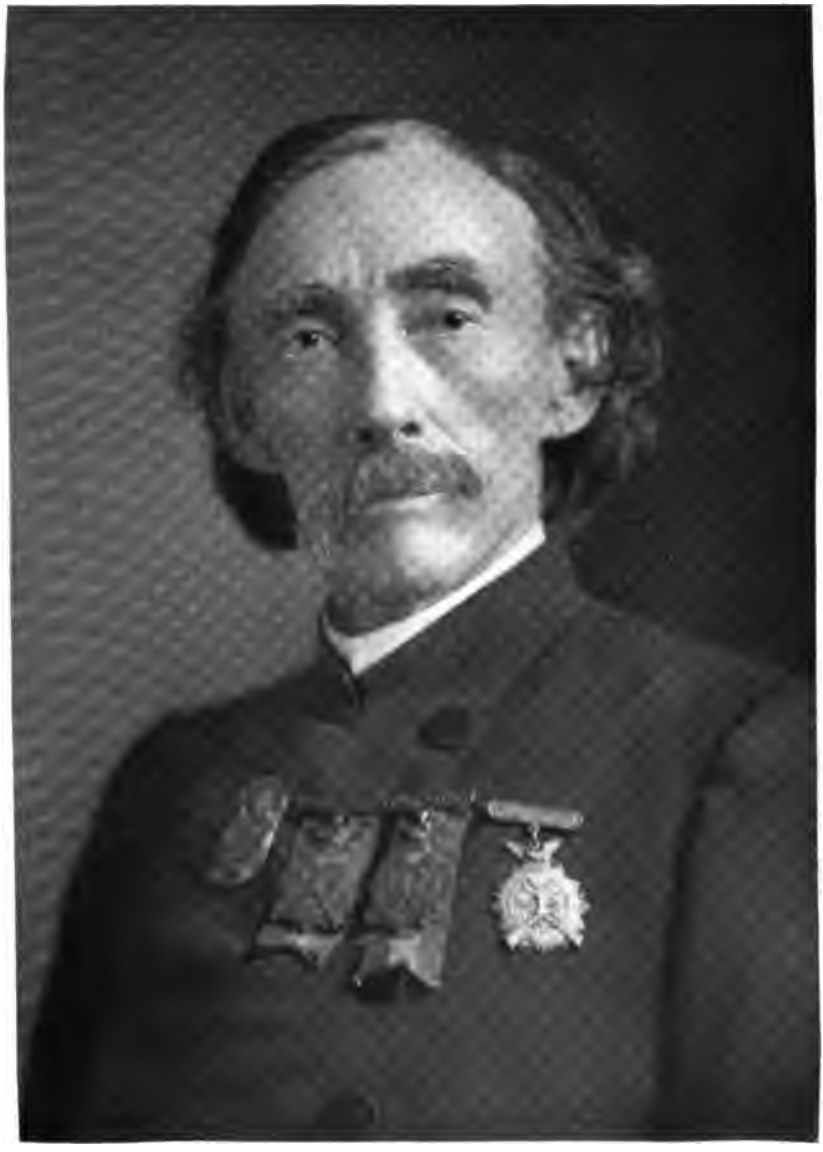
Promptly at four o'clock the invocation was pronounced by the acting chaplain of the University, Reverend Theodore Gerald Soares, Ph.D., D.D. President Harry Pratt Judson then made a statement regarding the service of the members of the University in the war, concluding with a request that the audience, after the University custom, rise in memory of the dead. Pleyel's Hymn was rung on the Alice Freeman Palmer Chimes. Then Verdi's *Requiem* was sung with great solemnity by the Apollo Musical Club, under the direction of Harrison M. Wild. The entire Chicago Symphony Orchestra assisted. The soloists were as follows: Soprano, Monica Graham Stults; Contralto, Louise Harrison Slade; Tenor, Robert Lauren Quait; Bass, Arthur Middleton. At the conclusion of the *Requiem* the Apollo Club sang Händel's "Hallelujah Chorus."

HIRAM WASHINGTON THOMAS, D.D.

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

Chicago has been generally regarded as a city wholly given to business, absorbed in material things, and quite destitute of interest in spiritual ideals. It may seem, therefore, a curious fact, but it is a quite unquestionable one, that the seventies and eighties of the nineteenth century formed a period of widespread and profound interest in that city in the central and fundamental questions of Christian theology. The character of God, the person of Christ, the atonement, sin, penalty, forgiveness, the inspiration of the Bible, were subjects much in men's thoughts and were common topics of conversation. This unusual interest in religion had its origin in the experiences of two prominent clergymen, Professor David Swing and Dr. Hiram W. Thomas. Professor Swing was a Presbyterian and Dr. Thomas a Methodist. They passed through almost identical experiences, Professor Swing in the middle seventies and Dr. Thomas a few years later. The public interest aroused in the career of the first was deepened and prolonged by that of the second, with whom this sketch has to do.

His parents, Joseph and Margaret (McDonald) Thomas named him at his birth Hiram Washington. He had three brothers and two younger sisters. His father was of German-Welsh descent and in religion a Quaker, while the mother was of Scotch-English blood and a Methodist. He was born April 29, 1832, on his father's farm in the Allegheny Mountains in Hampshire County, which is near the northeastern corner of what is now West Virginia. When he was a year old the family moved fifty miles west to Preston County, where he grew up as a farmer's boy. His early school advantages were slight, but the hard work of the farm was lightened by occasional terms in the district school. The region in which he spent his boyhood was a paradise for sportsmen, and young Thomas embraced its opportunities with such ardor that he early became an expert horseman and a crack shot. The family was poor and the life primitive. The boy, "in the summer plaited his own hats with rye straw that grew on his father's farm, and in the winter made his caps of the furs of the wild animals he captured in the chase." A story he told in a sermon fifty years later reveals the conditions under which his



THE REVEREND HIRAM W. THOMAS, D.D.

boyhood was spent. It told of himself, a boy of ten or twelve years, barefooted and clad in a cotton shirt and very cheap homemade trousers. One summer day his father, returning from town, brought him a ten-cent straw hat. Hastening out of the house with this prized possession, he climbed the rail fence and sitting on the top examined and admired and exulted in his new hat. Looking over the unfertile acres of the hill farm and at the log house he said to himself, "How rich our family is. What a fine house we have. What a splendid farm we have, and what good horses and nice stock. We have everything we need. And now my father has brought me this new chip hat from the store, so much finer than I could make for myself, so much more stylish and elegant. I am a very fortunate boy. I can't think of another thing I want." He was a contented and happy boy, and if he lacked anything he was fortunate enough not to know it.

From his youth up he was physically frail, and no doubt it was to his early life in the open and to the tonic air of the West Virginia hills that he owed such health as enabled him to meet the sorrows and labors of his later life.

He reached the age of eighteen before he made a profession of religion and joined the Methodist church. It is curious, therefore, to hear him say, "I always had the conviction, without being able to explain its cause, that I should some day be a minister, if I lived. I was rather laughed at for the idea among my companions and in my family, but I could not shake it off. I am certain that it resulted in my being one."

Very soon after his conversion, with little education and without any preparatory theological training, he began, in his nineteenth year, to preach. His drawings toward the Christian life had begun several years before this time, but he yielded to them and made his way slowly. He says, "I had a hard struggle of it: it was a weary way finding the light; it was plod and plead and pray." This spiritual struggle had been attended by an intellectual quickening. It created in him such a desire for a better education that he left home and found his way on foot nearly a hundred miles to Hardy County, southeast of Preston, where he found a little village academy and supported himself by working mornings and evenings through a winter's study. His conversion and decision to devote his life to preaching greatly increased this desire for a better education. Full of evangelistic zeal, he began to preach wherever opportunity offered, and with such promise that at the age of nineteen he was admitted to the Pittsburgh Conference of the Evangelical Association, an organization of German Methodists. He preached and studied

at the same time. For two years, from 1850 to 1852, he took private instruction under a Dr. McKesson, of his neighborhood, who was a prominent German Methodist minister. Later he attended for a single term an academy at Cooperstown, Pennsylvania, and still later studied for a short time in the "Seminary" at Berlin, a few miles northeast of his home and across the Pennsylvania line. During this period of four or five years he continued to preach, for two or three years being assigned a "circuit" by the Conference with a salary of $100 a year.

We get one interesting glimpse of the young preacher of those early years. He was in his twentieth year when he applied for a license to preach. The presiding elder of his district was a very able and eloquent man, Rev. Uriah Eberhart, a brother of Professor J. F. Eberhart, who was a prominent citizen of Chicago for many years, one of the early teachers of Dr. Thomas and his life-long friend. The presiding elder makes the following statement:

> I was holding a quarterly meeting in Virginia in 1852, when there came in a young man of slender build, long red hair, dressed in a suit of homemade clothes, dyed with butternut bark. A brother near said, "That is Hiram Thomas. His case is coming up for license to preach." "Well," I replied, "I shall have to hear him try before I could sign a license for so unpromising a youth." I heard him that night, at my request. Long before he was through, my doubts disappeared, and he got his license and a God-speed.

On the advice of the presiding elder the young man went to the Berlin Seminary, which was in charge of Professor J. F. Eberhart, who says:

> I will never forget his appearance as I first saw him. He was mounted on a bay horse, with saddle bags, long overcoat, leggings and boots coming nearly up to his knees, such as were worn in that day, and a bundle roll strapped on behind the saddle. Such was the full outfit for circuit preachers of that age.
>
> In reply to my questions as to what studies he wanted to pursue he said mental and moral philosophy, logic and rhetoric, and he wanted to learn Greek so as to be able to read the Testament in the original. . . . . His face was serious and looked a representative of the solemn, sincere and strenuous Christianity of that day. . . . . When he got into the school his solemnity seemed to change. He was all attention and sparkling and bright in his nature. He was more intelligent and cultured than the ordinary students and, being attentive, took in every thought and fact of his recitations with great avidity. He enjoyed natural philosophy, metaphysics, mathematics, and mastered the Greek verb "to be" with all its many irregularities, in its various voices, moods and tenses, in less time than I ever knew any student to accomplish that feat of arbitrary memory. No one ever enjoyed his studies more and no student was ever more satisfactory to his teacher.

After he left school he was appointed to the Sugar Creek circuit near Franklin, Pennsylvania. It was while he was riding this "circuit"

that a great piece of good fortune came to him. He was holding a series of evangelistic meetings in Mercer, one of the extreme western counties of Pennsylvania, when one evening a hilarious company of young people came in and out of pure mischief nearly broke up the service. The leading spirit in the mischief was a girl of nineteen or twenty years, Miss Emeline C. Merrick. She belonged to one of the most prominent and well-to-do families in the village. The meetings continued. She went again, became interested, and was soon numbered among the converts. The young minister found the girl who had nearly broken up his meeting so attractive that he promptly fell in love with her. She who had first gone to his meetings to mock and then had remained to pray ended by giving her heart to him and promising him her hand. Born in Pleasantville, Pennsylvania, August 31, 1832, she had received her education at Ashtabula, Ohio, where the family had lived for some years. Her father died suddenly while on a journey through Illinois sometime between 1845 and 1850, and the family later returned to Pennsylvania. The daughter had meantime received a good education, which she supplemented by wide reading. She was very attractive, with a warm, sunny disposition, and at the same time she had a practical, executive mind and great force of character. Her forbears were from New England, and she inherited their practical characteristics. She was thus ideally fitted to be the wife and helpmeet of the somewhat dreamy, reflective, unambitious young preacher she was to marry. Dr. Thomas fully appreciated the part she had played in his life in the way of stimulus and driving power when he said of her after her death, "But for her I should still be riding the circuit in little western towns."

They were married near Franklin, Pennsylvania, March 19, 1855, when she was twenty-two years old and he not quite twenty-three. The railroads had reached Chicago three years before. They had crossed Illinois and entered Iowa. The great West lay open, inviting settlement. The rich soil of the prairies called irresistibly to the dwellers among the hills and mountains of the East. All the Atlantic states felt the lure of the new world in the valley of the Mississippi. Men by the hundred thousand turned their possessions into money and settled in Illinois and Iowa. Every year an army of new settlers invaded those states. The father of young Thomas, with his family, joined the army of 1854 and went far toward the border line of settlements in southeastern Iowa. He was an abolitionist and uncomfortable in a slave state.

More than fifty years later Dr. and Mrs. Thomas visited the old West Virginia place, which appears to have been still known as the

"Thomas farm." It comprised 400 acres, and when the Doctor, from an elevation commanding a wide view, pointed out to his wife the farm with its slaty, stony soil he assured her that for agricultural purposes it was not worth two cents an acre. This was probably a pessimistic view, as his father had sold it for $10 an acre. A short time before this visit it had again been sold for the same price. Then came a change. The stony soil was discovered to be so rich in glass sand that glass was being manufactured. But this was not all. The surface was found to be underlaid with coal. The new proprietor had given up farming. The old homestead had been torn down, and a new and modern house had taken its place. The products of the old farm were no longer the meager and hard-won crops of hay and grain and potatoes of former years but rich royalties on the output of the coal mines and the production of glass. If the boy on the rail fence had only known, how right he would have been when he said, "How rich our family is."

Was it sympathy with his father on the slavery question or his mother's letters telling him of the need of preachers in that new land that moved the son to follow the family to the little Iowa hamlet of Pilotburg, sixty miles west of Davenport? However that may be, he joined them with his wife in their far western home in the spring of 1855. But his purpose of entering at once on the work of preaching in the new settlements was temporarily shattered by a severe, protracted, and well-nigh fatal illness. The change of climate from his native mountains to the valley of the Mississippi was too great a shock for his fragile body, and he "was brought to the very verge of death by a siege of congestive chills and fever." The physicians gave him up, the community awaited his funeral, but he began suddenly and rapidly to improve, and the whole country round about was, as he said, greatly excited over what seemed a miraculous recovery. But many months passed before he was able to enter on the work of the ministry.

He did not find German Methodists organized in the West, and in 1856 he was admitted to the Iowa Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church and entered on his work as an itinerant Methodist preacher, his full connection with the Conference dating from 1858. The capabilities of Mrs. Thomas began at once to appear. Referring forty years later to those early experiences Dr. Thomas said, "We had the experience of itineracy in a new country, not only its romance, but its hardships. My salary was $300 a year for the first three years and the next year $400. But we were happy. Mrs. Thomas was a fine economist. It seemed to be as easy to be six weeks ahead as six weeks behind; we were never in

debt, and only once were we without money in the house, and then only for a few hours." Mrs. Thomas early recognized her husband's unusual powers. She did this before he was himself conscious of them. Frail in body, naturally a student, an omnivorous reader, he might have yielded to his love for a quiet, sedentary life had he not felt the spur of her vigorous personality. She was ambitious for him if he was not for himself, and he said after her death, "One could hardly do less than his best under the pressure of such an intense life."

He therefore did his best and began to be known beyond the limits of his circuit. But there are almost no records of his Iowa ministry. He kept no diary and wrote no account of his life. In a sermon on the atonement delivered in the late seventies of the last century he said, "The world will never be troubled with a journal of my poor life; for I am writing none. Only the date of my birth and the day—the coronal day—of my marriage, have I committed to paper, save this: that a few points in my religious experiences so impressed me that I wrote them down." We have therefore no authentic record of his life and work in Iowa. We know only two or three facts. We know that while prosecuting his work he sought the help of two strong men to assist him in and direct his private studies. These were Dr. Charles Elliott and Dr. W. J. Spaulding, successive presidents of the Iowa Wesleyan University. This is only an indication of how essentially scholarly the young preacher was. He continued to be a most earnest student all his life. One has only to read his sermons to learn how broad his reading had been, how completely he had mastered what he had read, and how profoundly and independently he had thought on the great themes of philosophy and science and theology. Though his early educational advantages had been few he became an unusually well-educated man. And he was no ordinary student, who held himself to his task by force of will. He literally pursued knowledge. He had an extraordinary power of concentration. The subject of his study absorbed him so wholly that he was perfectly oblivious of what was taking place about him. No noise disturbed him. No interruption attracted attention for more than an instant, and his wife was sometimes compelled to resort to extreme measures when her necessities required his assistance. Whether the following story is apocryphal or not I do not know. It is declared to be a true tale, and its date is somewhere in this early Iowa period:

Mrs. Thomas was doing her own house work, and—expecting company for dinner—had put bread in the oven, when the fire went out for lack of fuel. She had

asked Mr. Thomas, who was intently studying near by, to go at once and cut some wood. He paid no attention to her request, and she spoke again and several times tried to impress him with the fact that the bread would be spoiled if there was not a fire immediately. Still he paid no attention, until, as a last resort, she took the remaining coals on a shovel, and, stepping behind him, held them close to the cane bottom chair on which he was sitting. The chair soon ignited and the flames made it uncomfortably hot. He then "raised" rather briskly for him, but still deliberately, and asked good naturedly, "Emma, what was it that you wanted?"

It was with this absorbing interest that he studied natural science in his early ministry when receiving a salary, in obscure charges, of from $300 to $600 a year, and he continued throughout life to follow the marvelous developments of science with the same devotion.

No doubt Dr. Elliott and Dr. Spaulding introduced him to the study of philosophy. Unlike most of us he loved it and pursued it with eager interest. He had the philosophic spirit, and when he stepped into the realm of philosophy one can imagine him recognizing his own country and saying with Rob Roy, "My foot is on my native heath," and there thenceforth he dwelt. Philosophy remained his favorite study. With the same intense interest, indeed, he pursued the study of history, but it was as a student of the philosophy of history. Where the pessimistic and cynical Henry Adams found only chaos in history Dr. Thomas discovered "Unity, Continuity, Purpose, Order, Law, Truth, the Universe, God." Philosophy remained a life-long pursuit. Of course theology did also, and he made himself familiar with the history of theological thought. But philosophy, "the application of reason to its legitimate objects," ruled his thinking in all departments of study and reacted powerfully on his preaching all his life.

Few young ministers give themselves to such a wide range of reading and study or become absorbed in it. Young Thomas was accustomed to study far into the night. As a result he slept in the morning until roused by his wife. "On the morning after the celebration of his silver wedding, in the spring of 1880, his wife waked him early, with the words, 'Come, Hiram, it is time to get up,' when he sleepily replied, 'Emma, that's the first thing you said to me, just twenty-five years ago this morning, and I have been hearing it ever since.'" There is a verisimilitude about this story that commends it. But it is worthy of note that his wife not only encouraged him in these studies and, perhaps, incited him to them, but that she was also a student. From a child she had been a great reader. Her husband said of her, "In the lines of history and literature she was remarkably proficient, and in many things she was considered a critic." Thus intellectually husband and wife progressed together.

The twelve years of ministry in Iowa are illuminated by one other ray of light from a sermon of Dr. Thomas preached in 1895. This was a sermon, "In Memory of Our Dead," delivered in the People's Church. He refers at length to Judge Boyles, saying among other things:

> I first met Judge Boyles when pastor of the Methodist church at Fort Madison, Iowa, in 1858. There was no parsonage, the church was run down, we lived in three little rooms, paid our rent, did our own work. I got $400 a year and it was hard work to get that. The first we heard of Judge Boyles was a ten-dollar bill he sent us; and to help the church along we reported it on the salary. His family then attended the Presbyterian Church; but they came over to hear me and he encouraged me by remarking that "if that man's legs hold out, that head might be heard from."

Fort Madison was the young preacher's second appointment in Iowa. The first at Marshall, where the son, Dr. Homer M. Thomas, the well-known Chicago physician, was born in the summer of 1858, had ended. There he had received a salary of $300. It was in the autumn of the same year that he was appointed to Fort Madison with a salary of $400. One is at a loss to decide which is the most interesting fact of the year beginning in autumn of 1858—the promising young preacher, twenty-six years old, giving a year's service for this meager pay; this exceptional family of three living in three rooms; the gifted wife and mother doing her own housework and making her home a social center in the village; or the fact that she did this on that meager salary and not only did not allow her less careful husband to get in debt but managed to have money always in the house and to keep six weeks ahead of the expenses. Perhaps as interesting as any was the action of the husband and wife in turning in to the church treasury for application on his salary a large ten-dollar bill sent, not to the church, but to him personally by a stranger.

The man's legs held out and his head began to be heard from. The church prospered, and after the first year at Fort Madison salaries of $400 became things of the past. In those years the Methodist itinerancy was a two-year term. At the end of his term Mr. Thomas was appointed chaplain of the state penitentiary, which was located at Fort Madison, so that his residence in that place was prolonged to four years. His reputation, however, was growing. Churches were asking for his services, and in 1862 he was assigned to the church at Washington. Mount Pleasant next secured him, and his last pastorate in Iowa was in Burlington. Meantime he was becoming every year more widely known. The churches he served prospered. The congregations increased, the membership grew, and his fame as a preacher crossed the Mississippi.

It reached Chicago, and in 1869 the Park Avenue Methodist Church of that city succeeded in securing his transfer from Iowa and his appointment to its pulpit. His old teacher J. F. Eberhart was chiefly responsible for bringing him to Chicago. He writes:

> In 1869 he [Dr. Thomas] attended the General Conference in Chicago. I entertained him at my house. . . . . About that time I met a leading lawyer from Burlington, Iowa, who said, in answer to my inquiry, that in the morning Dr. Thomas had the largest audience in Burlington, and in the evening he had all the people.
>
> Very shortly thereafter I invited Dr. Thomas to make me a visit and sent him transportation. I was then a member of the board of trustees of the Park Avenue Methodist Church. Dr. Bayliss was then our minister. I told Dr. Bayliss that I had a country minister visiting me, and I thought he would preach for him if invited. . . . . He looked quizzically at me and said, "I will invite anyone you recommend."
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> The official members of the church spread the news, and on Sunday morning the audience was larger than usual. . . . . The evening audience packed the house.
>
> Next morning Dr. Bayliss called at my house before Dr. Thomas was out, and I asked him his opinion of the "country preacher." He said, "There are few men living who can preach such sermons as he preached."
>
> The official board at once made an application to have him transferred.

When he settled in Chicago he had been preaching about eighteen years. He had served his apprenticeship and had become a master-workman. He had supplemented the defects of his early education by wide reading and earnest study until there were few more scholarly men in the Methodist ministry. There were almost none who possessed an equal acquaintance with science and philosophy. He had developed into a preacher of very uncommon attractiveness and power. And he was still a young man, being only thirty-seven years of age. He went from a small town to what, even then, was considered a great city. It was a deserved recognition when in 1870 the Indiana Asbury University conferred on him the degree of Doctor of Divinity.

In 1869–70 Chicago was a city of about 300,000 people. Its population was increasing at the rate of 40,000 every year. It was the metropolis of the Northwest, and ministers not unnaturally felt that a Chicago pulpit opened opportunities of influence and usefulness that could be found nowhere else in the West. To be called to Chicago was a recognition of ability and promise. To be appointed to Chicago by the bishops of the Methodist church was a similar recognition.

The Park Avenue Church, to which Dr. Thomas was called by the people and appointed by the bishop, was located on the corner of Park Avenue and Robey Street, which at that time was far out in what is known as the West Division of Chicago. It was in the midst of a community

of families belonging to the middle class. It had a membership in 1870 of 298. This increased during the pastorate of Dr. Thomas to 368. The great Chicago fire of October, 1871, did not reach within two miles of the Park Avenue Church, but many of its members lost their property, and the pastor surrendered $500 of his $3,000 salary to lighten the burdens of his people.

In 1872 Mr. Thomas was appointed to the Clark Street, or First, Church, which held its services in the well-known Methodist Church Block on the corner of Clark and Washington streets. The building was in the very center of the path of the great fire of 1871 and was of course utterly destroyed. The Church Block, as the Methodists called it, was a block of stores and business offices, with an audience room, classrooms, and Sunday-school rooms reserved for a free church. Here a church was conducted, $1,000 a year from the income of the business block being annually appropriated to help pay its current expenses. All the rest of the income was devoted to aiding feeble societies in erecting houses of worship. Several thousand dollars a year were being appropriated for this purpose when the fire came and destroyed the building. The site being in the midst of the business quarter it was at once rebuilt in more substantial form than before. The new block was a "four-story building containing ten basements, eight stores, a pastor's study, lecture-rooms, parlors, and a large auditorium." It was intended to constitute a perpetual endowment of Methodist missionary and extension work in Chicago.

At the time Dr. Thomas took charge of the church it was entering the newly erected block and gave him an ideal field for his peculiar gifts. It was central, in the business district indeed, and far from any residence quarter, but at the point where all lines of transportation came together, equally accessible from the North, South and West sides of the city, as well as near the great hotels, thus inviting the mass of strangers always in the city. It was an attraction to many that the new pastor's views were spoken of as under suspicion by the rigidly orthodox, and he was soon preaching to large congregations.

Soon after he took charge of the Clark Street Church his interest in philosophy resulted in the organization in October, 1873, of the Philosophical Society, which held its meetings in the Church Block. This Society was composed of men and women interested in the discussion of questions of philosophy, social science, natural science in its broader aspects, history, and moral philosophy. The members were of widely

divergent views. The meetings were open and the discussions frank and free. The Society quickly reached a membership of nearly three hundred. Dr. Thomas was its second president, and for a time it was not only prosperous but received a good deal of public attention, too much indeed for the peace of mind of the pastor of the Clark Street Church. Occasionally public lectures were given under the auspices of the Society in the auditorium of the Church Block.

It so happened that two such lectures were delivered by two somewhat prominent skeptics, Gerald Massey and Judge Henry Booth. "This was thought to be a great outrage on Christianity—infidel lectures from a Methodist pulpit—and Dr. Thomas was held responsible for it."

Of course he was in no way responsible, as it was understood that all shades of views were held in the Society, and no one was responsible for the utterances of any speaker except the speaker himself. The breeze against the pastor blew over, but the incident awakened in some minds and deepened in others grave suspicions as to his orthodoxy. Two parties began to appear in the Rock River Conference, of which he was a member. These parties might be called the conservatives and liberals. The conservatives insisted that their preachers must adhere strictly to the Methodist Standards of Doctrine and Articles of Faith. The liberals held that theology was a progressive science, that Methodism was organized on a liberal basis, and that the pastors must, within somewhat broad limits, have freedom of thought and speech. There was undoubtedly a third party composed of those who believed in liberty and progress but hated trouble, deprecated theological strife, and hoped to achieve progress without sacrificing peace.

A number of incidents occurred during the three years of the Clark Street pastorate which awakened criticism, but none of them was of sufficient importance to imperil the pastor's position in the church. He remained in good standing in the Conference, but the bishop thought it best to remove him from Chicago to a less conspicuous post, and in the autumn of 1875 he was appointed to the First Methodist Church of Aurora, Illinois, where the salary was little more than half of what he had been receiving. The Centenary Church, the largest Methodist church in Chicago, paying a salary of $4,000, double that paid in Aurora, had made strenuous efforts to secure him, but the authorities stood firm and sent him to Aurora. For many years his home in Chicago was at 535 West Monroe Street. It was convenient to the Centenary Church,

and that church wanted him, but Methodist discipline required obedience, and the man under authority obeyed, packed up his goods, and moved to Aurora.

His stay in that city was limited to two years, but it was one of the most fruitful periods of his ministry. He found the church with 296 members and left it with 434. He built up an evening congregation that filled the house. One of the notable things of his pastorate was the preaching of a series of sermons in the winter and spring of 1876. The sermons were all on great themes, such as "God or First Cause," "Origin and Antiquity of Our Race," "The Problem of Evil," "The Government of God," "Immortality," "The Resurrection," "Future Punishment," etc. They were delivered extemporaneously but were stenographically reported for the *Aurora Herald* and first printed in that paper. Congregations that filled the house listened to them with absorbed attention and growing interest. A year later they were published in book form under the title *The Origin and Destiny of Man.*

These sermons are interesting reading. The questions discussed are among the greatest in theology. They are presented with simplicity, sincerity, and ability. The sermons contain the germinal thoughts that made up the body of the preacher's later views. Save on a few points, such as a place of material hell fire, there is little dogmatic teaching. When he did not feel certain he confessed his uncertainty and led his congregation along lines of inquiry. Indeed one of the charms of the sermons was the fact that he talked with his congregation as a friend with friends. He said in the last of them, "In the beginning of this series I had no thought whatever that they were to appear in print. When the publishers of the *Herald* requested my manuscript for publication, I had to tell them I hadn't any, for to not one of these discourses have I ever done anything in the way of written preparation more than what might be noted on half a sheet of paper."

Few families are called upon to suffer the domestic afflictions that fell on Dr. and Mrs. Thomas. Of their seven children six died in childhood. This series of sermons was broken into by a succession of heartbreaking troubles. These were so many and so great as to draw forth a letter of sympathy from the Philosophical Society of Chicago. In answering it Dr. Thomas wrote, "We have indeed passed through no ordinary affliction. For eight long weeks we have had severe sickness in our house, prostrating each one of our family, and, what is saddest of all, taking from us our dear little Lollie. . . . . For more than a week I was but partially conscious." He had been prostrated by typhoid

fever and was kept out of his pulpit for two months, having returned to life from the very gates of death.

At the end of his first year in Aurora the Centenary Church of Chicago renewed its efforts to secure him, but the Aurora church would not give him up. At the end of his second year the Centenary people insisted that they must have him, and at the Conference of October, 1877, he was appointed their pastor. This was at that time the leading Methodist church in Chicago. No other had half its membership, which was about 900. No other paid so large a salary. It was the best appointment in the Conference, and of course in the entire West. If there were places of larger influence the successful occupancy of this pulpit pointed directly toward them. Dr. Thomas was one of the ablest and most popular preachers in the denomination. He might have aspired to any pulpit. Had his ambition led him in that direction a bishopric was not beyond his reach. When he went to the Centenary Church in 1877 he was still a young man, only forty-five years old, with a quarter of a century of vigorous activity before him. There lay before him a plain path to certain and large success in the denomination to which he belonged. That was the path of conformity. The path to inevitable trouble was nonconformity, not so much in his views as in the promulgation of them, in his insistence in his preaching on the points in which he differed from his church.

The pastorate in the Centenary Church marked for him the parting of the ways. He had reached in his theological thinking views that differed, not so much from the Articles of Faith, but from other standards of doctrine of the Methodist church. The differences related principally to inspiration, the atonement, and future punishment, not as to the fact of inspiration, or of the atonement, or of future punishment, in all of which he believed, but as to speculative theories regarding them. A less conscientious and more ambitious man would have contented himself with preaching these great doctrines without explaining how his views differed from those held by others.

This, was, however, not the method of Dr. Thomas. He had a philosophical mind. He loved to turn a fact over, view it on all its sides and in all its relations, and reach a theory regarding it that satisfied his mind. Having done this he was so constituted that he must proclaim the result, and being a preacher he proclaimed it in the pulpit. His theories on the atonement, inspiration, and future punishment differing from the general Methodist view awakened criticism and alarm among the more conservative and became matters of popular interest.

His sermons were printed in the newspapers and created bitterness among the more strictly orthodox Methodist preachers.

He had not reached the views he held on these doctrines except through long-continued study and struggle. We get from his sermons an occasional glimpse into his inner life that reveals something of the experiences he went through in reaching settled convictions. In a Centenary Church sermon on the atonement he said:

> For the sake of other struggling souls I would have this that I wrote in this city, January 11, 1870, live: "For years I have had the most painful and perplexing doubts on the subject of the Atonement, especially on its Godward bearings, as usually held in the churches accounted strictly orthodox. So uncertain, unsatisfactory and comfortless have these views seemed to me, so difficult to understand, and of so little power on my own heart, that I have had but little spirit to try to preach them to others. And yet I have felt that Christ must be preached; but not seeing my way at all clear, I have tried to do the best I could, often believing that I was more of a moral lecturer than a gospel minister.
>
> "Thank God! My long agony—and none but those who have had similar trials can know how great it has been—has this day been removed by clearer views: and with them came such a feeling sense of the divine love as filled my soul and caused me to weep long and loud for joy. The light came while reading Bushnell's *Vicarious Sacrifice*. May God keep me in this peace and help me to preach it to the world."
>
> That day I got the full view that God loved me; that he was in the sacrifice of a vicarious love to save me, and to save the world.

This moral-influence theory, or, as he always called it, moral theory of the atonement, he thenceforth held, rejecting all others.

He had the same sort of struggle over the question of future punishment. I have an impression that in his youth and in the somewhat primitive region in which he had been brought up Dr. Thomas had heard a good deal of preaching on the endless torment of the wicked in a lake of fire, and made the mistake of supposing that that sort of preaching still prevailed in a city like Chicago. Against this conception his heart and mind revolted. As a matter of fact other ministers had without any great mental struggle quietly abandoned these conceptions. It does not seem to have been so with him. These old views of a material lake of fire and brimstone caused him a world of trouble. In his farewell sermon at the Centenary Church he said:

> The subject is so large that before it I stand almost speechless. I have looked into this question a good deal. I attempted to study it under a realization of what the subject was fifteen or twenty years ago. It was such a gloom upon my mind that *I scarcely smiled for years*. I was not conscious of the state in which I was. I read all I could get. I could not settle the question in argument one way or the other. I got relief in prayer.

He accepted the doctrine of future punishment but turned more and more to what was known as the "larger hope," that if in the future life men repented and turned to God there was hope for them. He did not know that they would, but he was not without hope that they might.

When he preached this farewell sermon in the autumn of 1880 he had not been tried but had for two years been under censure for heretical views and was about to go to the annual Conference in great anxiety and utter uncertainty as to what awaited him.

The question of his orthodoxy had come before the Conference two years before, in 1878, and was quite certain to come up again. For two years he had been preaching to the largest Methodist congregation in Chicago under official censure. There are several accounts of the circumstances attending that censure. Dr. Thomas was a fair-minded man and of a curiously judicial temper. He himself gave the most temperate and fairest statement of these preliminary proceedings against him that I have been able to find. It was made in this same farewell sermon, and I quote from it the essential facts:

Two years ago, at the close of my first year's pastorate, I went to the Conference and handed in my reports. My name was called in the regular order, my character passed as it had been for many years before. Then there was a committee created—something that, so far as I know, was new in Methodism up to that time—called a Committee on Conference Relations. I called it a kind of Methodist grand jury, because persons could go to that Committee and file secret complaints, and in my case they did so, and I did not know then, nor do I know now, nor have I been able to find out, who they were, nor just what complaints they uttered. They never took any definite shape so that I could really get at them. This Committee appeared before the Conference Monday morning and stated that complaints had reached it in reference to myself and immediately the Conference went into secret session, and it continued thus in secret I think during five sessions. I have been familiar with Masonic lodges in nearly all the degrees for nearly twenty years and I do not think that I ever knew a lodge to be guarded with more serious care than was that secret session. Men were not permitted to talk loud . . . . and had to be called to account frequently for fear somebody would hear them from the windows. My published sermons had been broadcast before the world for years, yet not one was brought forward. They did vote on one sermon I preached before the Conference [This was a sermon on "Present Needs of Religion" preached the preceding Sunday, a very admirable discourse] and stood up and condemned it in this light, that no loyal Methodist preacher could preach it, and there was this singular thing happened. The night I preached the sermon, I had not sat down after the conclusion of the sermon until one of the so-called strong men of our church rushed to my side and took me by the hands and said: "Brother Thomas, those are my sentiments." And the next day when the standup vote was called with reference to the sermon he got right up not three feet from me [voting with the majority in condemnation] and he came to me and said, "Now, brother Thomas I want to explain a little. You must remember what I said to you and you

must have seen my vote." I told him I remembered what he said and I saw him stand up. "Well," said he, "what I said was what I believed, but I could not afford to go against what seemed to be the popular feeling." I simply remarked to him that I pitied him, and I would never mention his name, and nobody shall ever know through me who he is.

It was finally suggested that I prepare a paper, and at the hour of twelve o'clock I sat down, and in about thirty minutes wrote out a candid, open, honest statement of my views on religious matters, especially on the points where I thought there was a possibility of difference. I had been pulled, stretched and picked until I was sick in body and sick in spirit, and I wanted to know whether I was orthodox enough to stand in a Methodist pulpit, and I did not want to play lawyer, I could not if I tried—so I practically drew up a bill of charges against myself and put it in the hands of the Conference. They took a day to deliberate over it, and had me before the Committee and two of the Committee thought I was all right and one that I was not [Overriding the Committee the Conference finally passed a vote requiring him to give assurances that he would not repeat the teaching complained of, or would wihtdraw]; and then closing by saying in the interest of peace and charity they would take no further action for the present. . . . .

Now, in so far as any pledge that I made to that Conference is concerned, that pledge was in writing—and I stated in conclusion that as there seemed to be a widespread misapprehension as to what I really did believe and teach, I would try to so express myself in the future as not to be misunderstood and try to do my work as a faithful Christian minister as best I could. I have kept that pledge as well as I could. . . . . I suppose they all knew that if there was anything about me at all it was honesty, and I suppose they knew, and everybody knows, that if I try to preach at all I have to say what I think, and that I would keep on saying what I thought as long as I talked. . . . . This more I say: I will and I must be mentally and spiritually free. *And that at any cost.* I would rather die in poverty deep, with the crown of liberty on my brow, than to live in a palace and wear chains.

The conclusion of the Conference action referred to was singularly lame and impotent, saying, "Not desiring to cut short his ministry, which, however unsatisfactory in the past, we believe may be useful in the future, we deem it best in the interest of charity and peace to take no further action in the premises for the present." But the body of the report reaffirmed the judgment of the Conference that Dr. Thomas should give "unequivocal and satisfactory assurance" that his former teaching should not be repeated or that he should "retire from the Methodist Pulpit." He had declined to give any such assurance or to retire. He had simply said, "In the future I shall endeavor to so express myself as to guard as far as may be against the possibility of being misunderstood." Now for Dr. Thomas this was no promise of any change whatever. No man ever preached more simply and clearly. His evident aim in every sermon was to express himself with such simplicity and clearness that he could not be misunderstood.

After this Conference of 1878 matters ran on without further question for two years. At the session of 1879 the character of Dr. Thomas was passed without question, and this course was again taken in 1880.

His ecclesiastical troubles were really brought upon him by the Chicago newspapers, and this not because of their enmity, but because of their excessive friendliness. Discovering that his views differed somewhat from those of other ministers they began to print his sermons. The time came when these papers gave his sermons to the public every Monday morning. They gave out the impression, though the sermons themselves did not convey it, that the other pastors were preaching the doctrines of reprobation and a material lake of fire and brimstone. They held him up as, in addition to Professor Swing, the one progressive thinker in the Chicago pulpit, all other pastors being either not quite honest or ignorantly conservative. Dr. Thomas was not responsible for this impression, but it was made and other clergymen resented it. The wrath they ought to have directed at the press was visited on him, and the Methodist ministers were so wrought up by this excessive attention to and praise of one of their number, with the implied or expressed censure of themselves, that the time came when they were incapable of dealing with him wisely or justly.

This was the state of affairs when he went up in 1880 to the Conference. His name having been passed, two of his friends, without consulting him, moved that "the action of the Conference in passing the character of H. W. Thomas be understood to nullify the action on his case in 1878." The Conference would not consent to this, however, and the motion was laid on the table.

The next day the action of two years before was reaffirmed. Dr. Thomas again declined to withdraw, saying, in the course of a written statement he submitted, "I cannot go out of the church at your request, nor should I be forced out of it unless it be under the forms of law and after such thorough investigation as shall settle definitely the points at issue."

It is worthy of note that on the motion asking him to withdraw, while 110 voted in the affirmative, 65 were absent or refused to vote, and 49 voted in the negative. Among the 49 were several men who were or became presiding elders and at least one who was later made a bishop.

Measures were now taken to try Dr. Thomas for heresy. The case was referred to the presiding elder of the district, and on the request of the accused two of his bitterest opponents were requested to formulate the charges against him and present them to his presiding elder.

For some reason action was delayed, and the case did not come up for trial until September, 1881. The case was then tried in a preliminary way before the presiding elder of the Chicago district, who reported to the Conference on October 5 that "a Committee of Inquiry had examined charges against him and that he had been suspended from the ministry." Whereupon "a select number" of fifteen was ordered for the final trial of the case. The trial took place immediately and was ended before the close of the Conference.

It is not my purpose to follow the course of this trial. As a matter of fact it was not a trial. In the nature of the case it could not be. The forms indeed were observed, but the case was prejudged. Dr. Thomas was accused of no evil deed. His character was above reproach. His life was without a stain. He was charged with "teaching doctrines contrary to the articles of religion, the established standards and the doctrines and belief of the Methodist Episcopal Church," on inspiration, the atonement, and future punishment. His views on these subjects had long been before the world. For years his sermons had been appearing almost weekly in the Chicago daily papers. His views were perfectly familiar therefore to every member of the "select number" appointed to consider the case. It is no reflection on them to say that their minds were made up before the case was called. If they were intelligent men it could not have been otherwise. One way or the other they must have come to a decision in advance. It was on this ground that the friends of Dr. Thomas charged that the "select number" of fifteen was appointed to convict. The testimony and the arguments of counsel were all equally superfluous. The Committee was appointed to voice the sentiment of the majority of the Conference, and this it did.

One thing, however, should be said. The testimony of three or four individuals as to what they had heard Dr. Thomas say in private conversation and which was made much of by the prosecuting counsel should have been laughed out of court.

The result of the trial was that as to the doctrine of inspiration he was acquitted by a vote of eleven to four. As to the atonement and future punishment he was found guilty and was expelled from the "ministry and membership" of the church.

What were the views of Dr. Thomas on these great doctrines? They had been published in a hundred sermons, but he repeated them with fulness and frankness to the trial committee, concealing nothing. He then gave a brief summary of them as follows:

And now, what is the substance of what I believe and what I deny?

I hold to the inspiration and authority of the Scriptures; that in matters of doctrine and duty they are final; the authority of God. But I do not accept the "verbal" theory of inspiration; nor claim that all parts of all the 66 books of the Bible are of equal authority, inspiration, or value; nor that all parts of the Old Testament are critically infallible. And in these things am I not in accord with the best scholarship of our own church and of the world? Certainly I am. . . . . I hold to the doctrine of a vicarious atonement; but I hold it in that form that is called moral or paternal; or in other words I hold to the governmental view with the penal idea left out. I deny the doctrine of a literal penal substitution. It is, I think, both unreasonable and unscriptural. The moral view finds a place and a necessity for all that is said of the sufferings of Christ. . . . . He is the "Lamb slain from the foundation of the world"; the "Lamb that taketh away the sin of the world"; He is a "Mediator"; He is the "propitiation for our sins"; He is our "sacrifice," our "atonement"; we have "redemption through His blood"; He was "wounded," "bruised," "bore our sins in his own body on the tree"; "by his stripes we are healed"; "He died for us."

I hold to the strength and integrity of the government of God; that all sin will be properly punished; but I do not believe in a material hell fire; nor in the terrible ideas of future torment that have come down to us from the past. . . . . I hold to the endlessness of the law by which sin must be punished, and hence to endless punishment for the endlessly obdurate, if such there be; but, assuming, as I do, the freedom of souls after death, I cannot affirm that any soul will, or will not, forever remain in sin, and hence I can neither affirm nor deny endless punishment for any soul. But, postulating endless punishment upon endless sinning, I am logically bound to suppose that, if the sinning come to an end, the suffering must also come to an end—unless, indeed, it be that suffering of loss that in the nature of things seems to be remediless. And I have a hope—a hope that has come to me through much suffering and prayer, and that seems to be strengthened by the nearest visions of God—that, somehow, all the divine love and striving to win and save souls will not end with this poor, short life; but that the work of discipline and salvation may go on in the immortal world. And it seems to me that whilst there is upon some texts a surface look of finality, there is a deeper and a far-reaching vision of other texts, and of the Scriptures as a whole, on which this hope may rest.

It seems incredible that a man of the noble character of Dr. Thomas should for views like these have been expelled not only from the ministry but from *membership in the church.* It seems still more incredible that the Judicial Committee should have refused to hear his appeal, because having no other pulpit he was preaching for the People's Church.

It is due to Dr. Thomas to call attention to the difference in the spirit manifested by him and by the men who prosecuted him. He was treated with what sounds very much like brutality by some of them. But through all these years of trial he himself displayed, as far as the record shows, a truly Christian spirit. The bitterness manifested by some may be inferred from the following statement of Charles J. Hull in

his *Reflections from a Busy Life:* "Soon after Dr. Thomas was deposed, an intelligent professional gentleman predicted that within two years he would be without a following and unable to provide bread for his family." This gentleman may have been intelligent, but he was a poor prophet.

The stormy period in the life of Dr. Thomas was now over. He was forty-eight years old when his ministry in the Methodist church ended, but he still had before him a peaceful, fruitful, and highly successful ministry of more than twenty years. Within two weeks after the Conference had placed him in the supernumerary list, without a charge, he was the pastor of a new church.

Immediately after the adjournment of the Conference in October, 1880, some of his friends met together to consider some plan by which he might be retained in Chicago. They decided to organize a church and call him to the pastorate. They worked fast. Twenty men signed a contract pledging themselves to a guarantee fund to the amount of $250 each, and this continued to be done annually. These guarantors constituted the board which chose the trustees of the church. On October 28, 1880, the organization was completed, and the trustees wrote to Dr. Thomas, saying, "We, the trustees, as authorized by the board of directors, extend to you a call from The People's Church of Chicago, to preach the gospel upon such a broad and evangelical platform as to you may seem in accordance with the will of God and best promotive of His cause in the welfare of mankind."

Dr. Thomas immediately accepted this call. Hooley's theater was engaged and the first service was held November 7, 1880. The pulpit labors of Dr. Thomas were therefore interrupted for one month only, which gave him a very short vacation after the exhausting experiences attending his double trial.

The People's Church was established on the following basis, set forth by the trustees:

> As its name implies, it is the aim of The People's Church to provide a place of worship for all; for strangers and those without a religious home, and those of much or little faith, and of different beliefs; and to unite all in the great law and duty of love to God and Man, and in earnest efforts to do good in the world.
>
> In form The People's Church is independent Congregational, and requires no theological tests as conditions of membership. We think, and let think.[1] We hold that upon the great questions of the Christian faith and life, the freedom of reason should not be bound by the opinions of men, but that all should search the Scriptures and believe and do what they think is true and right; and The People's Church welcomes to its fellowship all who are in sympathy with its spirit and work.

[1] "We think and let think" was a quotation from the "father of Methodism", John Wesley.

At the opening service the pastor stated that they had no desire to start a new denomination. From the first Sunday the attendance was very large. In September, 1885, the Society removed to the Chicago Opera House, and in 1886 it was said, "It is difficult to obtain even standing room when Dr. Thomas preaches." At a later date the services were transferred to McVicker's Theatre.

The organization was not so much a church as a congregation. The "Articles" adopted November 4, 1889, lodged all power in the congregation, that is, the holders of seats. They chose the pastors, the trustees, the deacons, and the advisory council. They succeeded the guarantors in full financial responsibility for the enterprise. This change brought its anxieties, the trustees in February, 1890, in appealing for an increased rental of seats, saying, "With our uniformly large audiences—on many Sundays the capacity of our commodious auditorium is inadequate—it may be a surprise to many to learn that the number of sittings taken thus far in the current year is less than five hundred."

Dr. Thomas labored all his life under the handicap of frequent and serious illnesses. Perhaps Professor Eberhart was referring to the fourteen years spent in Iowa when he says, "He had a severe attack of typhoid fever almost every year." He also related the following: "At one time he and his wife both had a siege of sickness. He was in a house on one side of a small lake and his wife on the other side, where they could see each other when well enough to sit up, but neither one was able or permitted to visit the other for several months."

During his first year with the People's Church he was kept out of his pulpit four months by sickness. With all this sickness we do not wonder that it was said of him, "His body is frail, his walk unsteady, and there is a sort of Lincoln lankness about him. He has hardly enough flesh to cover his bones." We only wonder that he found the courage and strength to do anything. The amount of labor this frail man performed is astounding. He was an invalid who through fifty years performed the labors of a Hercules.

His sicknesses were sore trials, but his sorrows were greatly increased by the loss of six of his seven children. In almost every pastorate a child was taken from the family. In his farewell to the Centenary Church he said, "We have buried our children in four cemeteries and two states."

The crowning affliction, however, came in 1896 in the death of the wife of his youth. Dr. Thomas had always considered her his main

support and chief assistant. "Her active temperament, capacity for work, and old-fashioned common sense made her just the helpmeet needed when he organized the People's Church and much of its success must be attributed to her." She had a winning personality and she made her home a social center. She had a great fund of anecdotes and a keen sense of humor which made her interesting and attractive. She died on January 5, 1896.

At her funeral President Spaulding said of her: "She possessed a very luminous and lofty spirit, wonderfully vital in its quality. There was space in her soul for the sublimest conceptions, the highest ideals, the noblest impulses and for the free play of the faculties that plan and achieve great things."

Considering his physical frailty Dr. Thomas might very properly have confined his labors to the immediate duties of his pastorates. He found this, however, impossible. For many years he was in great demand as a lecturer in different parts of the country. When the *Alliance*, a semireligious paper, was started in 1875 he became one of the editors, and in his later years was an associate editor of *Unity*. He was president of the Congress of Religions organized after the World's Fair of 1893. For fifteen years he presided over the Chicago Peace Society. While, however, he was an earnest advocate of peace, he was not a peace at any price man. In 1880 he was made chaplain of the First Regiment, Illinois National Guard, and served the regiment for more than a quarter of a century, being retired at his own request in 1908. In association with the young men of the regiment he renewed his youth. He went out with them to the rifle ranges, and they said of him with affectionate pride, "He wore upon his breast two medals of which he was supremely proud—the 'Long and Honorable Service' medal of our regiment, and the 'Sharpshooter's' badge of the Illinois National Guard."

The ministry of Dr. Thomas in the People's Church continued from 1880 to 1902, from his forty-eighth to his seventieth year. There could be no more convincing evidence of the unique quality and extraordinary ability of the man than he gave in maintaining a great congregation in the center of the business district of Chicago for twenty-two years. The wonder grows when it is remembered that he carried on this successful work, not in the vigor of physical strength, but in bodily frailty and precarious health, not in the morning, but in the afternoon and evening of life.

In 1899 Dr. Thomas married Miss Vandelia Varnum. She was of English parentage, was born in Lynden, western New York, was educated at Ten Broeck Academy and Alfred University, and later took graduate studies at Cornell. For some years she was a teacher in Ottawa University, Kansas, and Mount Carroll Seminary, Illinois. Having exceptional ability as a public speaker, she was called into the lecture field in 1887 for the Women's Christian Temperance Union and for five years averaged a lecture a day. For several years before her marriage she was connected with lyceum bureaus in New York, Ohio, and Chicago and was the only woman lecturer at that time distinctly in the popular field.

She came to Dr. Thomas with experience and understanding and in full sympathy with his work. Many burdens that fell heavily on his declining strength she was able to bear for him. Aside from the cares of the home, his large correspondence, social demands, and the like there were many pulpit and platform engagements which fell upon her to fill. It was an ideal union for the ten years of life that remained to Dr. Thomas.

The People's Church gave its pastor an annual vacation of two or three months. From his youth up he had been an expert with the shotgun and the rifle, and many of his vacations were spent in the northern wildernesses or the western mountains.

In 1900 he bought a home in De Funiak Springs in northwestern Florida, and thereafter all the winters and later all the summers were spent there.

In 1901, as president of the Congress of Religions, accompanied by his wife and others, Dr. Thomas toured the Pacific Coast, holding congresses in the principal cities from San Diego to Seattle.

Though very frail in the last years of his life he retained the keenest interest in all world-movements. In the words of Mrs. Thomas:

> In his last sickness he said, "Women are coming into their own. I'll not be here, but you will, and you will be a part of it when all women will have the ballot." And a few days before, while he could still walk, he came down stairs with face radiant as the stars, and said, "I can see it, I can see it, a world congress, a world court of justice, a world peace." His outline of the future League of Nations differed but little and in no sense vitally from that which is now given by the Peace Commission in Paris.

He died after a brief illness at De Funiak Springs, Florida, August 12, 1909, in the seventy-eighth year of his age. This was seven years after he retired from the pastorate of the People's Church. These were

not years of idleness. He continued to write and preach and lecture. A lecture was delivered by him at an Alabama Chautauqua in 1905 which was worthy of his best days. It was on "World Problems." I find in it many pregnant sentences, such as the following: "Henceforth the world problem must be the democracy of mankind." "Henceforth industrialism will be in the foreground. . . . . World courts will arbitrate questions of dispute. . . . . World peace is the first and most urgent problem of these great years." "One who has never worked must have a hard time trying to be religious." "Religion is the life of God in the soul of man."

The People's Church did not long survive the loss of the great personality round which it had gathered and which had been its real life. It cannot be doubted that Dr. Thomas was a unique man. An eminent Methodist minister recently said to me, "He was of a most attractive and winning personality. If he said to a person, 'Come to Jesus,' that person would feel at once that this was the most important and delightful thing in the world to do." Children loved him. Animals instinctively recognized him as a friend. The most vicious dogs became friendly on his approach. With him in the saddle horses that others could not ride became gentle. Walking on the streets of Chicago became increasingly difficult for him. Everybody knew him, and so many wanted to shake hands with him that they obstructed the sidewalk and interrupted travel. It was said of him by one who knew him well:

> In trusting confidence in others he was childlike. Almost anyone could approach him and apparently deceive him, but in truth he was rarely deceived. He simply ignored the evidences by which the world judged and saw only the latent or possible good, or perhaps consciously allowed his sympathy to take possession of his judgment. But however gentle and peaceful he was tremendously strong and unyielding when the time and subject demanded, where great issues were at stake. Time was nothing, majorities were nothing, defeat nothing. There was the vision and the faith that never faltered.

In person he was about six feet in height, very slender, with dark auburn hair, worn long and with a natural and beautiful wave, and a mustache. His movements were slow, his speech deliberate, with a pleasant drawl, and he was never disconcerted. In preaching he was conversational, not declamatory. His voice was, like Lincoln's, a high tenor and had the same carrying power. He was a quiet preacher but spoke with earnestness and sometimes rose to impassioned eloquence. He preached without notes, though in his later years he wrote his sermons

out in full. He was not rhetorical in his preaching, nor was he hortatory. His style was eminently didactic. He considered the preacher to be a prophet, a teacher, yet his teaching was the farthest removed from dogmatism. The impression he made on his congregation was what it would have been had he begun by saying, "This is an important and interesting subject that we ought to know about. I have looked into it, but I would like to have you study it with me. Let us together see what we can make of it."

He made large use of the historical method. He would trace the history of science, or of philosophy, or of theology from the remote past down to the present. He would take up the origin and development of life on our planet, or of man, or of religion. Or he would take a single doctrine and follow its historical development. But all these lines of thought led to one great conclusion, the life and love of God in the souls of men. He himself said of his preaching:

> My methods are different from some. I pursue as a rule, as you have all learned, the inductive method. I seek to lead the minds of those with whom I am talking, and I feel always that I am near to—with my audience—talking with them, not standing off and talking at them, but talking with them. I try to lead them along to the standpoints where truth seems evident to them, and where I do not have to proclaim and cry out, believe! believe! but where they see the truth and they want to believe, and they can't help but believe.

His sermons were not the traditional exordium, three points, conclusion, and exhortation. They were a growth, a development, an unfolding, one thought leading naturally to the next, the listener finding himself at the close in the very presence of the loving God and Father of all. Such preaching to those who heard it habitually was a liberal education, and it is not strange that some of the ablest thinkers in Chicago attended the People's Church.

Dr. Thomas preached for more than fifty years. More than five hundred of his sermons were printed in the daily papers. About one hundred were published in four volumes. These are among the most thoughtful, instructive, elevated in tone, and Christian in spirit that I have ever read. They are the sermons of a man who read widely, thought deeply and clearly, and was intent on leading men into the Christian life. The business center of Chicago is the worst place in the city for gathering a great audience to hear preaching. The fact that through more than twenty years Dr. Thomas drew together there a congregation of 1,500 or 2,000 is the best possible evidence that he was

a great preacher. It was a marvelous achievement; and it was all the more remarkable because his preaching was the farthest removed from the sensational. His appeal was to the intellect, the conscience, and the heart. He informed the mind, convinced the understanding, awakened the spiritual life, and brought the life and love of God into the soul.

The body of Dr. Thomas had been buried in Rose Hill Cemetery, Chicago, and on May 1, 1910, a memorial service was held under the auspices of the surviving members of the People's Church, the officers and friends of the Congress of Religion and St. Bernard Commandery, Knights Templar, "in honor of their Pastor, President, Frater and Comrade." Addresses were made by Rabbi Hirsch, Dr. Frank W. Gunsaulus, Professor G. B. Foster, Jane Addams, and Dr. R. A. White.

I cannot refrain from quoting a few lines from the noble tribute to his memory by the Veteran Corps of the First Infantry Regiment, Illinois National Guard, of which he was chaplain for twenty-eight years:

> He was one of the great figures of the present generation, a many-sided man, great in mind, pure in heart and noble in character. . . . . He has passed into history as one of the great souls of our day. . . . . During his quarter-century of military service he preached to many thousands of young soldiers. . . . . The keynote of his religious philosophy was love, the love of God for his children, the love of man for his divine Father, and for his brother-man.

Since her husband's death Mrs. Thomas has established three memorials of him. In Alfred University, New York, she has endowed the Dr. Thomas World Peace Prize Contest, providing for first and second prizes.

Largely through her benefactions and those of that life-long friend of Dr. Thomas, Professor John F. Eberhart, a church has been built to his memory in the southwestern part of Chicago, Chicago Lawn. "The Hiram W. Thomas Memorial Congregational Church." Located in a growing section of the city, where the people own their homes, it has a promising future. No more fitting memorial of a great preacher could be built than one designed to perpetuate the preaching of the gospel to which he gave his life.

This biographical sketch is written because of the erection by Mrs. Thomas of still another memorial. Dr. Thomas was one of the early friends of the University of Chicago. He often served the institution in sermons and lectures. In January, 1916, Mrs. Thomas wrote to the trustees the following letter:

GENTLEMEN:

It gives me great pleasure to transfer to The University of Chicago the properties represented by the accompanying deeds. The purpose of the gift is to found, when the income thereof is sufficient, a series of annual lectures in memory of my husband, the late Dr. H. W. Thomas, of Chicago, Illinois, the same to be known as the "Hiram W. Thomas Lectures." I do not label these, for I would not fetter the future by the past, but they shall be given by representatives of the larger faith and express the ever growing thought of the world in religion and life—the universals that knit man to man and man to his Maker.

I ask that due publicity be given to each course that those with open vision outside as well as the student life may avail themselves of the benefits.

Sincerely yours,

VANDELIA VARNUM THOMAS

In a previous letter Mrs. Thomas had said that her husband was the University's "first minister," and that "he gave his last message years after in Chicago in Kent Hall."

Through these lectures we may hope, with their founder, that "the spirit in which Dr. Thomas lived and wrought and died" will find expression, and though dead he will continue to speak.

THE ONE HUNDRED AND ELEVENTH CONVOCATION

The One Hundred and Eleventh Convocation of the University of Chicago was held in the Frank Dickinson Bartlett Gymnasium, at four o'clock on the afternoon of June the tenth. The Convocation Address by Richard Greene Moulton, Ph.D., Professor of Literary Theory and Interpretation, and Head of the Department of General Literature, is printed in this issue of the *University Record*. The President's Convocation Statement is also included in this issue.

The award of honors included that of the new and notable Mr. and Mrs. Frank D. Logan Research Fellowship in Bacteriology and Pathology. The Mr. and Mrs. Frank D. Logan Fellowships in Medicine and in Surgery will also be awarded upon the organization of the Medical School. The Logan Fellowship awarded at the One Hundred and Eleventh Convocation is assigned in alternate years in Bacteriology and Pathology. The American Council of Research Fellowship in Physics, provided by the Rockefeller Foundation, was also awarded for the first time.

Other awards were as follows: Honorable Mention for excellence in the work in the Junior Colleges, 101; Honorable Mention for excellence in the work leading to the certificate of the College of Education, 3; scholarships in the Senior Colleges for excellence in the work of the Junior Colleges, 14; the Joseph Triner Scholarship in Chemistry, 1; the Julius Rosenwald Prize for excellence in Oratory, 2; the Florence James Adams Prize for excellence in Artistic Reading, 2; the Milo P. Jewett Prize for excellence in Bible Reading, 1; the David Blair McLaughlin Prize for excellence in the writing of English Prose, 1; the Conference Medal for excellence in athletics and scholarship, 1; scholarships in the Senior Colleges for excellence in the work of the first three years of the college course, 13; the Bachelor's Degree with Honors, 57; honors for excellence in particular departments of the Senior Colleges, 52; scholarships in the Graduate Schools for excellence in the work of the Senior Colleges, 14; the Howard Taylor Ricketts Prize for research in Pathology, 2; Election to the Chicago Chapter of the Order of the Coif on nomination by the faculty of the Law School for high distinction in the professional work of the Law School, 2;

election as associate members to Sigma Xi on nomination of two departments of Science, for evidence of promise of ability in research work in Science, 10; election of members to Sigma Xi, 11; election of members to Beta of Illinois Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa, on nomination by the University, for especial distinction in general scholarship in the University, 33.

Degrees were conferred as follows: Bachelor of Arts, 11; Bachelor of Philosophy, 206; Bachelor of Science, 79; Bachelor of Laws, 3; Master of Arts, 35; Master of Science, 13; Bachelor of Divinity, 4; Doctor of Law (J.D.), 8; Doctor of Philosophy, 13.

During the academic year 1918–19 the following titles, certificates, and degrees have been conferred:

The Certificate of the Two Years' Course in the College of Education	33
The Degree of Bachelor of Arts, Philosophy, or Science	477
The Degree of Bachelor of Laws	4
The Degree of Master of Arts in the Divinity School	29
The Degree of Master of Arts or Science in the Graduate Schools	115
The Degree of Bachelor of Divinity	7
The Degree of Doctor of Law	28
The Degree of Philosophy in the Divinity School	7
The Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate Schools	45

The Convocation Prayer Service was held in the Harper Assembly Room Sunday morning, June 8, at 10:30. The Convocation Religious Service was held in Mandel Hall at 11:00 A.M., the sermon being preached by Rev. Edgar Young Mullins, D.D., LL.D., president of the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary.

The Convocation Reception was held Monday evening, June 9, in the Tower Group Buildings. Those in the reception line were President and Mrs. Harry Pratt Judson, Professor and Mrs. Richard Greene Moulton, Professor and Mrs. Thomas C. Chamberlain, Professor and Mrs. William Gardner Hale.

In honor of the three professors who retired at this time a dinner was given in Ida Noyes Hall Tuesday evening, at 7 o'clock, by members of the University Senate. After the dinner President Judson as toastmaster introduced the following speakers: Dean Rollin D. Salisbury, James R. Angell, Nathaniel Butler.

Many other functions were included in the very busy Convocation season. Some account of these and of the activities of the alumni may may be found in the July number of the *University of Chicago Magazine.*

At the dinner of the alumni on Saturday evening, June 7, in Hutchinson Hall, one of the most interesting events of the reunion took place.

Fred Huebenthal, '17, who was a member of Ambulance Unit Number 555, a unit made from the University of Chicago Ambulance Unit, presented to President Judson on behalf of the University the American flag, which had been given to that Ambulance Unit by the women of the University at the time of its departure in the summer of 1917. He stated that the flag was the first American flag connected with a military organization to fly upon the soil of Italy. It was at the head of the American columns that were sent up to the Austrian front, and was one of the first flags that appeared in the great battle of the Piave. For that reason and in token of the loyal interest of the University in forming the Unit and starting it on its noble work in Italy the company had unanimously voted that the flag be returned to the University of Chicago. With this flag they also presented an Austrian machine gun captured in the battle of the Piave. President Judson in receiving this gift thanked the Unit for the flag and the gun and stated that the University was proud of the service this Unit rendered. In commenting on the war activities of the University, its students and alumni, he spoke in part as follows:

During the Great War which is just closing the alumni of the University have contributed thousands to the national cause, and there are seventy gold stars on our service flag. It is, I think, eminently proper that we should begin to consider at an early date the best means of establishing in the quadrangles a suitable memorial for those of our number who have given their lives for our country. It is not a matter for hasty consideration but should involve very careful deliberation. Various views as to a suitable memorial are held and expressed in different parts of the country. A memorial building is eminently adapted to commemorate a single person, and that is the case with us in several instances. For the commemoration of a group of people, however, I doubt very much whether a building is the best means. As time passes the memorial idea tends to disappear and the utility of the building is likely to take first place in the thoughts of a great majority of the people. For a memorial of this character, therefore, it seems to me it is better to create something which is a memorial, and a memorial only, quite apart from any practical utility. To illustrate what I have in mind, for instance, I would suggest as a suitable structure for our grounds a memorial arch to be placed, perhaps, at the head of Fifty-eighth Street at the entrance to the quadrangles at that point. Such an arch should be constructed on the best lines of architectural and artistic beauty. It should have the choicest sculptural decoration. It should contain a bronze tablet, or tablets, bearing the name and record of each one of our soldier and sailor dead. It would stand as long as the University lasts to commemorate these names and the spirit of the University which honored them. Furthermore, a memorial of that character is within reach of the members of the University. It would be far better in my opinion to have it the gift of a great number of people each one of whom would contribute small sums, rather than the gift of a few who are able to give large sums. Let it be the expression of our honor, our gratitude, and our affection. Of course, I am not urging the plan of the arch as the sole idea. Other better ones may be suggested. It is, however, the underlying principle involved that I am urging on the attention of the alumni.

FIFTEENTH-CENTURY BOOKS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, MARCH, 1919

By J. C. M. HANSON
Associate Director of Libraries

As the University of Chicago Library has not been in existence much over twenty-six years, it cannot be expected as yet to have acquired book treasures comparable to those of institutions with a history covering more than three hundred years of continuous development. Add to this the circumstance that with the exception of the last seven years most of the books were purchased by and for departmental libraries, few of which were in a position to collect or care for early imprints, it is not surprising that, even as late as 1914, there were less than twenty-five books in sight printed prior to 1501, and of these, few had been purchased on individual orders. They seemed in the main to have been the result of periodic visits by certain professors, especially interested in the development of their departmental libraries, to the vast accumulations of uncatalogued books stored in Ellis Hall and elsewhere. Most of the incunabula later found in these collections were of small format and in ordinary bindings and had probably on that account remained unnoticed.

About 1915 the attention of Dr. F. W. Gunsaulus, to whom the University was already indebted for some exceptionally valuable manuscripts and letters, was called to this poverty of the University Library in the matter of fifteenth-century books. The result has been the addition to date of thirty unusually fine specimens of the early presses. The collection presented by him stands at the east end of the Main Reading-Room, third floor, Harper Memorial Library. It is the plan of the donor from time to time to add to it as opportunities present themselves of securing good illustrations of the works of printers and presses not as yet represented in the University Library.

In the winter of 1915–16 a more methodical examination of the Berlin and Hengstenberg collections was begun for the purpose of securing a general survey of their contents, to provide a rough preliminary classification, and incidentally to set aside unusually rare and valuable books which might turn up in the course of the sorting. A considerable number of fifteenth-century books, some of them of rather exceptional

value, were found. These books are now located in the Rare Book Room, first floor, Harper Memorial Library. Incunabula from the Divinity and Classical libraries have been provisionally added to this collection, with the result that it now contains seventy-seven specimens. Added to the thirty in the Gunsaulus Collection, this makes a total of one hundred and seven books printed prior to 1501, now in Harper Library.

The collection is numerically small as compared with those of certain other libraries, e.g., Harvard, with nearly 900; the Library of Congress, with 600 in the Thacher Collection alone; and the Newberry Library, with a little over 300 items. It presents, nevertheless, a promising nucleus around which there should in time be grouped a sufficient number of good illustrations of the more notable early presses, to afford faculty and students an opportunity to study the progress of printing during the first half-century when it was passing through the formative stages, from its first strict adherence to the form and style of the manuscript to that attained by the printed book about 1520, when it appears with complete title-page, pagination, table of contents, and occasionally an index.

Aside from their importance for students, it must be remembered that the value of these early books is constantly increasing and every large library owes it to posterity to save as many of them as possible from deterioration and destruction. As Graesel says, "To practically all incunabula we may safely apply the Erasmic saying: *Sicut in unguentis et vinis, ita in libris pretium addit antiquitas.*"

A list of the University of Chicago collection as it stands today is appended to this brief notice. Certain information given in notes at the end of the list is based on a comparison of the titles with the *Census of Fifteenth-Century Books in America* recently completed in the *Bulletin of the New York Public Library*, April–December, 1918. It will be noted that of the 107 items 22 represent the only copy so far reported in America. In 22 cases the *Census* notes one, and in 19, two other copies.

The fact that few copies are known does not of itself determine that the book is of unusual value as a specimen of printing. In fact, some of the best illustrations of the more famous presses are fortunately represented by from four to eleven copies in American libraries. The *Census* may possibly bring to light works of which no other copy is known to exist anywhere. To such unica would in any case attach an extraordinary interest and value. It is doubtful, however, whether these rarities will be found outside of the few notable private collections built up by

certain millionaire book-lovers in this country. At any rate, there is as yet no reason to believe that of the 22 books, of which the University of Chicago seems to have the only copy in America, there are not other copies in European libraries. Some of them are schoolbooks, and it is well known that this particular class of books has from time immemorial been subjected to hard usage and that consequently some editions, or issues at least, have been practically destroyed. There is a possibility that among these early textbooks which came to the University chiefly through the purchase of the Calvary Collection there may be cases in which the University of Chicago copy is one of a very few which have survived the wear and tear of the schoolroom, not to speak of a certain vandalism which has characterized school children of all countries and all ages.

The present list is arranged in chronological order based on the year of printing. In addition to the date there is given author, often without forenames, epithets or titles of honor or distinction, title of the book in brief form, place of publication, and name of printer, when known. Time has not permitted any exhaustive search for bibliographical data. When the books are fully catalogued, information, especially as to date, place of publication, and printer, will no doubt be supplied in many cases, where in the present list it has been omitted.

List of Incunabula

1.	*n.d.	*Compendium octo partium orationum.* n.pl. n.pr. (Possibly printed in Augsburg about 1495 by Michael Wenssler.)
2.	*n.d.	Jacobus de Varagine. *Legenda aurea.* Ulm, Johann Zainer. G.
3.	**1470	Augustinus. *De civitate Dei.* Rome, Sweynheym and Pannartz. G.
4.	**1470	Cicero. *De officiis.* Venice, Johann and Wendelin of Speier. G.
5.	*1470	Gerson. *De efficacia orationis.* Cologne, Ulrich Zell.
6.	1470	Leo the Great. *Sermones et epistolae.* Rome, Johannes Philippus de Lignamine. G.
7.	***1471	Cyprianus. *Epistolae.* Rome, Sweynheym and Pannartz. G.
8.	**1471	Festus. *De verborum significatione.* Rome, G. Lauer.
9.	1471–72	Lyra, Nicolaus de. *Glossae seu Postillae perpetuae in Veterum et Novum Testamentum.* Rome, Sweynheym and Pannartz. 5 v. Vol. I wanting.
10.	1472	Boccacio. *Genealogia deorum.* Venice, Wendelin of Speier. G.
11.	***1472	Diodorus Siculus. *Bibliotheca seu Historiarum priscarum libb. VI.* Bologna, Baldassare Azzoguidi. G.

12. ***1472 LACTANTIUS. *Opera; De divinis institutionibus.* Venice, Wendelin of Speier.
13. 1472 THOMAS AQUINAS. *Questiones de Anima.* Venice, Franz Renner. G.
14. *1472 VARRO. *De lingua latina.* Venice, n.pr. G.
15. 1473 BOCCACIO. *De montibus, etc.* Venice, Wendelin of Speier. (Bound with his *Genealogia deorum*, 1472.) G.
16. *1474 DONATUS. *Fabularum breviatio.* Padua, Pierre Mauser.
17. **1474 FESTUS. *De verborum significatione.* Venice, Johann of Cologne and Johann Manthen. G.
18. 1475 *Bible. German.* Augsburg, G. Zainer.
19. ***1475 *Corpus juris civilis. Institutiones.* Rome, Ulrich Han.
20. *1476 *Corpus juris civilis. Institutiones.* Basel, Michael Wenssler.
21. *1476 CARACCIOLI. *Quadragesimale de poenitentia.* Venice, Johann of Cologne and Johann Manthen. G.
22. *1476? CARACCIOLI. *Quadragesimale de poenitentia.* Strassburg, Georg Husner?
23. 1476 PRISCIANUS. *Opera.* Venice, Johann of Cologne and Johann Manthen. G.
24. **1476 PRISCIANUS. *Opera.* Venice, Jacobus of Fivizzano. G.
25. **1476 VALLA. *Elegantiae de lingua latina.* Venice, Jacobus Rubeus. G.
26. **1477 BERSUIRE, PIERRE. *Liber bibliae moralis.* Cologne, Bartholomaeus of Unkel.
27. 1477 DIONYSIUS PERIEGETES. *De situ orbis.* n.pl. Erhard Ratdolt and Peter Löslein.
28. 1479 JUSTINUS. *Epitome Trogi.* Venice, Filippo de Pietro. G.
29. 1480 *Bible. German, Low.* Cologne, H. Quentell. 2 v. (Imperfect; lacking Isaiah to end.)
30. 1480 *Bible. Latin.* Strassburg, Adolf Rusch. 4 v.
31. 1480 LEONARDUS MATTHAEI (DE UTINO). *Sermones.* Vicenza, Stephan Koblinger.
32. *1481 DUNS SCOTUS. *Quaestiones super libro primo sententiarum.* Venice, Johann of Cologne, Nicolai Jenson, soc.
33. **1481 DUNS SCOTUS. *Quotlibeta quaestionum.* Venice, Johann of Cologne, Nicolai Jenson, soc. (Bound with his *Quaestiones*, 1481.)
34. **1481 PAULUS VENETUS. *Super libros de anima.* Venice, Filippo de Pietro. (Imperfect; Fol. 1 mutilated, fol. 18 and 50 in MSS.)
35. ***1482 BOETHIUS. *De consolatione philosophiae.* Cologne, Johannes Koelhoff. G.
36. ***1482 JACOBUS DE VARAGINE. *Historia lombardica.* Nuremberg, Anton Koberger.
37. ***1483 *Chronicles of England.* St. Albans, n.pr. G.
38. *1483 CICERO. *Rhetorica.* Venice, Baptista de Tortis.
39. 1483 ISIDORUS. *Etymologiae; de summo bono.* Venice, Peter Löslein.

40. 1483 PLINIUS CAECILIUS SECUNDUS. *Epistolarum liber*. Treviso, Johannes Rubeus.

41. **1483 SILIUS ITALICUS. *Punica*. Venice, Baptista de Tortis.

42. *1483 TERENTIUS AFER. *Comoediae*. Venice, Andreas Torresanus with Bartholomaeus de Blauis.

43. *1483–84 CAPRIOLI. *Commentaria in IV libb. Sententiarum, seu libb. IV defensionum theologiae Thomas Aquinatis*. Venice, Octavianus Scotus. 4 v. G. (Incomplete copy; lacking vols. 2–4 and of vol. 1, fol. 1–5?)

44 1485 *Bible. Latin*. Nuremberg, Anton Koberger. 4 v.

45. 1485 GELLIUS. *Noctes Atticae*. Brescia, Boninus de Boninis. G.

46. *1486 *Breviloquus. Vocabulari*. Cologne, H. Quentell.

47. ***1486 BROMYARDE. *Summa praedicantium*. Basel, Johann of Amorbach. 2 v.

48. *1486 THOMAS AQUINAS. *Super primo sententiarum*. Venice, Antonius de Strata.

49. **1487? GUIBERTUS TORNACENSIS. *Sermones*. Louvain, Johannes of Paderborn. G.

50. 1488 AVIENUS. *Opuscula, Aratea, etc*. Venice, Antonius de Strata.

51. 1488 CICERO. *De oratore*. Venice, Thomas de Blauis. G.

52. ***1489 ARISTOTELES. *Opera*. Venice, Bernardinus Stagninus. (Imperfect; wanting fol. 1–472.)

53. 1489 FICINO. *De cura valitudinis eorum qui incumbunt studio litterarum*. Florence, Antonio Miscomini. G.

54. ***1489 HOLCOT. *Super libros sapientie*. Reutlingen, Johann Otmar.

55. *1489 REGIOMONTANUS. *Kalendarium*. Venice, Erhard Ratdolt.

56. **1489 VERGILIUS MARO. *Opera, cum commentariis Servii, Donati, Landini, Calderini*. Venice, Georgius Arrivabenus.

57. **1490? BARZIZIUS. *Orthographia*. n.pl. n.pr.

58. *1490 EBRARDUS. *Modus latinitatis*. n.pl. n.pr.

59. **1490 HIERONYMUS. *Epistolae*. Venice, Bernardinus Benalius. G.

60. **1490? MELBER, JOHANNES. *Vocabularius predicantium; Variloquus*. Strassburg, Georg Husner.

61. 1490 REGIUS. *Epistolae Plinii*. Venice, Gulielmus Tridinensis called "Anima mia."

62. **1490 SAVONAROLA. *Triumpho della Croce*. Florence, Bartolommeo di Libri. H.

63. ***1490 SIMONETTA. *Historia delle cose facte dallo invictissimo Duca Francesco Sforza*. Milan, Antonio Zarotto. G.

64. 1491 BERGAMO. *Statuta*. Brescia, Angelus and Jacobus Britannicus.

65. 1491 *Bible. Latin*. Basel, Johann Froben.

66. 1491 BONAVENTURA. *Questiones supra libros sententiarum*. Nuremberg, Anton Koberger. 5 vols. in 2.

67. *1491 LESCHER. *Rethorica*. Cologne, H. Quentell.

68. 1492 *Bible. Latin*. Nuremberg, Anton Koberger. 4 v. (Imperfect; lacking parts 3–4.)

69. *1492 CELTES. *Panegyris*. Augsburg, Erhard Ratdolt.

70.	1492	PETRARCA. *Epistolae familiares.* Venice, Johannes and Gregorius de Gregoriis.
71.	1492	PETRARCA. *De remediis.* Cremona, Bernardinus Misenta and Caesar of Parma.
72.	1492–93	BARBARO. *Castigationes.* Rome, Eucharius Silber.
73.	1493	QUINTILIANUS. *Quintilianus cum commento* [*Institutiones oratoriae.*] Venice, Bonetus Locatellus.
74.	1493	SCHEDEL. *Cronicarum libri.* Nuremberg, Anton Koberger. G.
75.	1494	AUGUSTINUS. *De civitate Dei.* Freiburg i. B., Kilian Fischer.
76.	1494	AUGUSTINUS. *De Trinitate.* Freiburg i. B., Kilian Fischer. (Bound with his *De civitate Dei*, 1494.)
77.	1494	BOCCACIO. *Genealogiae.* Venice, Bonetus Locatellus.
78.	*1494	COLONNE, GUIDO DELLE. *Historia troiana.* Strassburg, n.pr.
79.	**1494	OVIDIUS NASO. *De arte amandi.* Venice, Johannes Tacuinus.
80.	**1494	THOMAS AQUINAS. *Super secundo sententiarum.* Bologna, Benedictus Hectoris Faelli. (Bound with his *Super primo sententiarum*, 1486.)
81.	1495	CAMPANUS. *Opera.* Rome, Eucharius Silber. G.
82.	***1495	CLAUDIANUS. *Opera.* Venice, Johannes Tacuinus. (Also a second copy; imperfect.)
83.	1495	GAZA, THEODORUS. *Grammatica introductiva de mensibus.* Venice, Aldus Manutius.
84.	***1495?	JUVENCUS. *Historia evangelica.* n.pl. n.pr.
85.	***1495	LIVIUS. *Historiae romanae decades.* Milan, Ulrich Scinzenzeler.
86.	1495–98	ARISTOTELES. *Opera.* Venice, Aldus. 5 v. (Imperfect; lacking vol. 1 signatures 6 – end, vol. 2–3. There is a second copy of vol. 4.)
87.	***1496	HUGO DE SANCTO CARO. *Pastilla aurea super Psalmos.* Venice, Johannes and Gregorius de Gregoriis. G.
88.	1496	PETRARCA. *Bucolicum carmen.* Venice, Marcus Horigono.
89.	1497	CLEONIDES. *Harmonium introductorium.* Venice, Simon (de Gabis) Bevilaqua.
90.	1497	JOHANNES DE SANCTO GEMINIANO. *Liber de exemplis et similitudinibus rerum.* Venice, Johannes and Gregorius de Gregoriis.
91.	1497	MARULLUS. *Hymni et epigrammata.* Florence, Societas Colubris (Compagnia del Drago). (Imperfect; fol. 11–14 supplied in manuscript.)
92.	***1497?	PRUDENTIUS, *Opera.* Deventer, Richardus Pafraet of Cologne. G.
93.	***1498	COLONNA, EGIDIO. *De regimine principum.* Venice, Simon (de Gabis) Bevilaqua.
94.	1498	SOLINUS. *De mirabilibus mundi.* Brescia, Jacobus Britannicus.
95.	***1498	STATIUS. *Statii Sylvae cum Domitii Commentariis.* Venice, Petrus Johannes de Quarengiis.
96.	1499, 1497	BOETHIUS. *Opera.* Venice, Johannes and Gregorius de Gregoriis. 3 vols. in 1. (Also a second copy of vol. 2. H.)

97. ***1499 COLONNA, EGIDIO. *Commentum super libros priorum analyticorum Aristotelis.* Venice, Simon of Lovere. (Bound with his *Expositio in artem veterem*, 1507.)

98. 1499 *Epistolae diversorum philosophorum oratorum et rhetorum.* Venice, Aldus.

99. *1499 GERSON. *Alphabetum divini amoris.* Paris, Gui Marchand.

100. **1499 MANCINELLUS. *Scribendi orandique modus.* Ulm, Johann Schäffler.

101. **1499 OVIDIUS. *Heroidum epistolae.* Venice, Johannes Tacuinus. (Bound with his *De arte amandi*, 1494.)

102. **1499 OVIDIUS NASO. *Tristium liber.* Venice, Johannes Tacuinus.

103. 1499 *Scriptores astronomici veteres.* Venice, Aldus. (Also a second copy; imperfect.)

104. 1499 SUIDAS. *Lexicon graecum.* Milan, Johannes Bissolus and Benedictus Manguis. G.

105. *1500 AVICENNA. *Canonis libri.* Venice, Simon (de Gabis) Bevilaqua.

106. *1500 *Exercitum puerorum grammaticale.* Strassburg?, Georg Husner?

107. **1500 TIBULLUS. *Tibullus cum commentariis.* Venice, Johannes Tacuinus. (Imperfect; wanting sign. o^6–end.

*Only copy so far located in America.
**One of two copies in America.
***One of three copies in America.
G. Stands for Gunsaulus Collection.
H. Stands for Hodge Collection.

EVENTS: PAST AND FUTURE

At the recent meeting of the National Academy of Sciences in Washington Professor Ernest J. Wilczynski, of the Department of Mathematics, was elected to membership. Professor Wilczynski, who is a graduate of the University of Berlin, has been connected at various times with the University of California, the Carnegie Institution of Washington, and the University of Illinois.

A promising movement is being organized by prominent alumni and members of the Faculties to increase the interest and efficiency of the alumni organizations of the University throughout the country. Several conferences have already been held in Chicago, and Professor Nathaniel Butler, of the Department of Education, who is Director of Co-operation with Secondary Schools, recently spoke on the subject before the Minnesota Alumni Club in Minneapolis. Dean Shailer Mathews also spoke on the same subject before a group of alumni in Denver, where he was in attendance at the Northern Baptist Convention.

A fifty thousand dollar fund is now being raised by the alumni of the Chicago Theological Seminary for the Graham Taylor Hall to be erected on the new Seminary site at the University of Chicago, Fifty-eighth Street and University Avenue. The new building will be the central unit of the Seminary and will house the library and chapel. Professor Taylor, who has taught at the Seminary for almost a quarter of a century, was a pioneer in the field of social betterment.

The University Preachers for the Summer Quarter have been announced, as follows:

President Frank Wakeley Gunsaulus, of the Armour Institute of Technology, was the preacher on June 22, and Professor Harris F. Rall, of the Garrett Biblical Institute, Evanston, Illionis, on June 29.

The first preacher in July was Dean Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago Divinity School. Professor Theodore G. Soares, of the same school, spoke on July 13; Dr. William Pierson Merrill, of the Brick Presbyterian Church, New York City, on July 20; and Associate Professor Allan Hoben, of the University of Chicago, on July 27.

The first preacher in August will be Professor Gerald Birney Smith, of the University of Chicago Divinity School. The preacher for August 10 will be shortly announced. On August 17 Dr. James A. Francis, of the First Baptist Church, Los Angeles, California, will be the preacher; and on Convocation Sunday, August 24, Dean Lewis B. Fisher, of the Ryder Divinity School, University of Chicago.

Professor Edward Caldwell Moore, of Harvard University, who is now in the Near East as a representative of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, has just finished an important book on the development and international relations of modern missions, which the University of Chicago Press is to publish shortly under the title of *The Spread of Christianity in the Modern World*.

Announcement is just made of the appointment by the governor of Illinois of Professor Rollin D. Salisbury, Head of the Department of Geography and Dean of the Ogden Graduate School of Science at the University of Chicago, as a member of the Illinois State Board of Natural Resources and Conservation. Dean Salisbury succeeds to the position made vacant by the resignation of Professor T. C. Chamberlin, Head of the Department of Geology at the University of Chicago.

Two prizes were awarded to members of the Faculty of the School of Education of the University of Chicago at the exhibition in the Art Institute of paintings and sculpture by Chicago artists. Walter Sargent, Professor of Art Education, received the prize of the

Englewood Woman's Club of Chicago, and Antoinette Hollister, Instructor in Clay-Modeling, received the Mrs. John C. Shaffer hundred-dollar prize in sculpture for her figure "The Knitter."

At the annual meeting of the Association of American Anatomists held from April 17 to 19 in Pittsburgh, Professor Robert R. Bensley presided.

In the recent Victory Loan the University of Chicago exceeded its quota of $100,000 by 50 per cent. Through Dean Frank J. Miller the following subscriptions have so far been reported: The Faculties, $37,500; women students $26,900; men students, $9,450; the administration, $10,350; the University of Chicago Press, $5,050; the University High School, $53,000; the University Elementary School, $7,550. The approximate total is $150,000. The prize of a German leather dress helmet for the greatest amount and number of subscriptions was presented in chapel to Miss Katherine Clark, who secured $6,050 in subscriptions.

Dean James Rowland Angell, Head of the Department of Psychology, has accepted the headship of the National Research Council at Washington. This position is of one-year tenure and became effective July 1. The Council has been the chief agency of the government in mobilizing scientific men and scientific resources for the war. It consists of an association of the leading scientific societies and organizations of the United States, and has thirteen divisions, six of general relations and seven of science and technology.

As head of the National Research Council Dean Angell will have control of the work of mobilizing, stimulating, and co-ordinating the scientific activities of the country. Dean Angell has been granted a year's leave of absence from the University of Chicago.

Professor Gordon J. Laing, of the Department of the Latin Language and Literature, was elected president of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South at the annual meeting of the association in Atlanta, Georgia. Professor Laing, who formerly edited the journal of the association (*The Classical Journal*, published by the University of Chicago Press), resigned from that position to become General Editor of the University of Chicago Press. The Classical Association of the Middle West and South has vice-presidents from thirty states and a membership of about two thousand.

Professor Anton Julius Carlson, Chairman of the Department of Physiology at the University of Chicago, who as a major in the Sanitary Corps of the United States Army inspected American camps in England and is now a member of the American Relief Administration in France, writes from Paris in a private letter: "You must not believe all the tales carried to you by my friends and enemies. I am by no means an expert aviator, although I have used the aërial route as means of transportation to save time; no mishaps, except one forced landing because of a stalled motor. Another time we were struck by a rain storm and went above a cloud and lost our way over the mountains of Wales. Last January, in trying to get down through Servia, in face of wrecked railroads, bad wagon roads, and no camions or automobiles, I had an offer of being taken in an airplane from Belgrade to Uskub; but I declined the offer, partly because the machines were rather shaky, partly because I did not have much confidence in the pilot, and thirdly because it was snowing. I know of several pastimes more pleasant than flying over the Serbian mountains in a snow storm."

Professor Carlson, whose particular duty in connection with the Children's Relief Work in several countries has kept him in Paris for about a month, expects to take the field again for the American Relief Administration, probably going up to Finland, and returning by Esthonia, Lettonia, Lithuania, Poland, Roumania, and Vienna.

Director A. A. Stagg, of the Department of Physical Culture and Athletics, has had a unique honor conferred upon him. Through Colonel Waite C. Johnson, of General Pershing's staff, who is the chief athletic officer of the American Army, Mr. Stagg was invited to be director of the Inter-Allied games which took place during June and July. Unfortunately, because of ill health, Mr. Stagg was unable to accept the invitation to direct the games.

Associate Professor Rollin T. Chamberlin, of the Department of Geology,

has been appointed a member of the Committee on Grants of the American Association for the Advancement of Science to distribute the annual appropriation of research. Four thousand dollars has already been assigned for the year 1919.

The first William Vaughn Moody lecture for the Spring Quarter at the University of Chicago was given on April 9 by Mr. John Galsworthy, the widely known English novelist and playwright, author of *The Dark Flower*, *The Freelands*, *Fraternity*, *Justice*, and *The Mob*. A great audience heard the lecture on "New Factors in the Life of the Civilized World," in which the speaker discussed the importance of the press, the schools, and the arts in a democracy, the conquest of the air, the problem of bolshevism, the advantages of a League of Nations, and the growing brotherhood of the Briton and the American.

Three other lectures on the Moody Foundation were given on April 15, 16, and 17 by Dr. A. V. Williams Jackson, Professor of Indo-Iranian Languages in Columbia University, the subjects of the lectures being the "Beginnings of Persian Poetry and the Great Epic," "Persian Mystic and Lyric Poetry," and "Romantic Verse, Including Ballad Poetry of Lands to the East of Persia." Professor Jackson recently visited Persia as a member of the American-Persian Relief Commission of which President Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago, was the director.

Professor Frank R. Lillie, Chairman of the Department of Zoölogy, has been elected one of the representatives of the American Society of Zoölogists in the reorganized Division of Biology and Agriculture of the National Research Council. The president of the American Society of Zoölogists is Professor Charles Manning Child, of the University of Chicago.

Professor James Henry Breasted, Chairman of the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures, was elected a member of the American Philosophical Society at its annual meeting in Philadelphia. While in Philadelphia Professor Breasted gave the presidential address before the American Oriental Society, and later in Washington gave two lectures on the William Ellery Hale Lectureship of the National Academy of Sciences, on "The Origins of Civilization."

Professor Julius Stieglitz, Chairman of the Department of Chemistry, who has been president of the American Chemical Society, has been nominated by that society as a representative in the Division of Chemistry and Chemical Technology of the National Research Council. Professor Stieglitz has also been elected to membership in the American Philosophical Society.

Mr. Trevor Arnett, Auditor of the University of Chicago, was elected president of the Association of Business Officers of Universities and Colleges of the Middle West at its recent meeting in Chicago. Mr. Arnett presented a paper at one of the sessions on "Business Organization of Universities with Exhibit of Organization Charts." Among the universities represented were Minnesota, Wisconsin, Ohio State, Indiana, the University of Cincinnati, the State University of Iowa, and the University of Michigan.

Lieutenant Colonel Harold E. Marr, U.S.A., who is a graduate of Bowdoin College, has been assigned by the United States government to take charge of the work in Military Science and Tactics at the University of Chicago. Work in this department will include expert instruction fitting students on the technical side for one or another of the several branches of army service. Students entering the military courses will be held for three summer camps. One of these may be in the summer preceding entrance on the university course and one the summer succeeding graduation.

Professor George H. Mead, of the Department of Philosophy, who has just been re-elected president of the Chicago City Club, has been made chairman of the Cook County branch of the League to Enforce Peace. Others from the University associated with Professor Mead in the work of the League are Dean Shailer Mathews, of the Divinity School; Professor Andrew C. McLaughlin, Head of the Department of History, and Mr. Frederick D. Bramhall, of the same department. Representatives from the Board of Trustees include Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson and Mr. Julius Rosenwald.

ATTENDANCE IN SPRING QUARTER, 1919

	1919			1918			Gain	Loss
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total		
I. The Departments of Arts, Literature, and Science:								
1. The Graduate Schools—								
Arts and Literature	125	122	247	102	135	237	10	.....
Science	157	69	226	141	66	207	19	.....
Total	282	191	473	243	201	444	29	.....
2. The Colleges—								
Senior	362	371	733	295	377	672	61	.....
Junior	537	412	949	445	409	854	95	.....
Unclassified	40	40	80	22	43	65	15	.....
Total	939	823	1,762	762	829	1,591	171	.....
Total Arts, Literature, and Science	1,221	1,014	2,235	1,005	1,030	2,035	200	.....
II. The Professional Schools:								
1. The Divinity School—								
Graduate	82 (4 dup.)	12	94 (4 dup.)	86 (2 dup.)	10	96	.....	2
Unclassified	12	2	14	8	1	9	5	.....
English Theological	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chicago Theological Seminary	22	1	23	24	3	27	.....	4
Total	116	15	131	118	14	132	.....	1
*2. The Courses in Medicine—								
Graduate	55	15	70	64	12	76	.....	6
Senior	103	18	121	113	6	119	2	.....
Junior	3	.....	3	10	1	11	.....	8
Unclassified	8	.....	8	3	.....	3	5	.....
Total	169	33	202	190	19	209	.....	7
3. The Law School—								
Graduate	73	8	81	38	8	46	35	.....
*Senior	22	2	24	32	3	35	.....	11
Candidates for LL.B.	28	2	30	21	3	24	6	.....
Unclassified	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	123	12	135	91	14	105	30	.....
4. The College of Education	13	189	202	5	271	276	.....	74
5. The School of Commerce and Administration	166	80	246	106	52	158	88	.....
Total Professional	587	329	916	510	370	880	36	.....
Total University	1,808	1,343	3,151	1,515	1,400	2,915	236	.....
*Deduct for Duplications	195	35	230	224	22	246	.....	.....
Net totals	1,613	1,308	2,921	1,291	1,378	2,669	252	.....

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(New Series)

OCTOBER 1919

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EDITOR

DAVID ALLAN ROBERTSON

Vol. V

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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

VOLUME V OCTOBER 1919 NUMBER 4

THE PEACE CONFERENCE IN THE LIGHT OF HISTORY[1]

BY WILLIAM EZRA LINGELBACH, PH.D.
Professor of Modern European History, University of Pennsylvania

"This Conference may be considered in some respects as the final crowning of the diplomatic history of the world up to this day, for never have so many nations been represented at the same time to solve problems which in so high a degree interest the whole world." With these words of the President at the first session of the Conference at Paris everyone agrees. Beyond this, however, unanimity ceases. The widest divergence of opinion exists both as to the mode of procedure adopted by the Conference and as to the solution of the problems finally embodied in the treaties.

Typical of the strong indorsements of the treaty is that by the eminent publicist Mr. Frederick Harrison. "The treaties of 1815 and 1878," he says, "were inspired by fear, hatred, and greed. The peace of 1919 is in union, confidence, sagacity and foresight." Flatly contradictory is the opinion of the *Morning Post* when it says: "This is a peace with hatred imposed by necessity and accepted with loathing . . . . to be repudiated by the Germans at the first opportunity and only maintainable by us if we keep armies and fleets ready for war."

The Administrative Council of the English Labor party declared: "The terms of the document, misnamed a peace treaty, ... violate the conditions of the armistice. They are opposed to every public statement of the allied aims in the war. . . . . They do not bring an end to militarism, but fasten the system more firmly on the peoples of

[1] Delivered on the occasion of the One Hundred and Twelfth Convocation of the University held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, August 29, 1919.

the allied countries." A score of the leaders of British labor formally denounced the treaty as "a direct defiance of labor opinion throughout the world." One radical journal assailed "the Clemenceau-Lloyd-George-Wilson peace pact as the greatest fake in history." French and Italian socialists like those of neutral countries voice similar sentiments.

Midway between these extremes is the attitude of the American Federation of Labor as expressed in a resolution adopted at its annual convention this year. "The covenant," it says, "is not a perfect document, and perfection is not claimed for it. . . . . It provides the best machinery yet devised for the prevention of war. . . . . It places human relations on a new basis."

Hundreds of other opinions have appeared and are appearing every day—some thoughtful and honest, others palpably prejudiced and insincere, some enthusiastic, some dubious, some cynical, some bitterly hostile. In this babel of voices it would seem foolish to join, were it not that a study of the Conference against the background of history may help toward a saner evaluation of its work.

To measure the Peace Conference by the standards and analogies of the past, to test it by the basic principles of human progress, would be a simpler matter were there more agreement as to the laws of historic development. History still awaits its Darwin. Whether materialistic or idealistic factors, economic or psychological conditions, or personal leadership dominate in the realm of human evolution is still a moot question. At the same time there are certain clear-cut and definite characteristics associated with all historic development. Among these are unity, continuity, and the great principle of progress itself.

Further, the study of the phenomena of history reveals equally clearly that the chief determinants of this evolutionary progress are co-operation and competition—co-operation first, because it is more powerful and from our point of view more significant. What better illustration of this than the experience of the war! Never before was co-operation applied on so large a scale and with such extraordinary results as by the allies in the conduct of the world-war against the doctrine that might makes right and that competition is the sole law of progress. Neo-Darwinism as applied to nations and the worship of the biological and materialistic interpretation of history have been discredited forever. The law of the jungle and the doctrine of the survival of the fittest, by which those with the strongest teeth and the sharpest claws prevail, has been proven to be not only false but dangerously vicious; not that the principle of competition in itself is bad, but its over-

emphasis without regulation and without respect for moral law is clearly out of accord with the higher principle of co-operation.

Human progress, though evolutionary in character, is at times almost imperceptible. This has led many to look on history as the swinging back and forth of a pendulum, moving constantly but never getting anywhere. Much more in accord with facts is the figure which pictures the race climbing a high mountain. The ascent is never direct but by a tortuous, zigzag path from one point of vantage to another. Sometimes little or nothing is gained in altitude; again a single stretch of the way brings one out upon some higher level from which the significance as well as the necessity of the slow and laborious ascent becomes suddenly plain. The old landmarks lie far behind and below.

From this point of vantage it is possible to obtain a perspective, to see the present in its relation to the past. This is the more desirable because the historian labors under the disadvantage of being unable to observe the phenomena of his investigations at first hand; he is necessarily obliged to view them through records made by others. Nor can he, like the scientist, repeat experiments. History does not repeat itself. Nevertheless there is general agreement that large forces and movements are continuous, that events are best understood when viewed in relation to them, and that historic analogies and precedents are of great value in appraising the events in human progress.

Viewing in this light the events and movements under consideration it need scarcely be said that the Peace Conference which assembled in its first plenary session at the Quai d'Orsay in Paris last January is not without its historic parallels. Every great war has necessarily been followed by reconstruction, and in a number of important instances this was undertaken by a general congress of the nations chiefly concerned. Among these, four stand out conspicuously. They are the Congress of Westphalia of 1648—in connection with which, according to an eminent authority, the word "congress" was first definitely applied to an international gathering—the Congress of Vienna in 1815, the Congress of Paris in 1856, and the Congress of Berlin in 1878.

The so-called religious character of the Thirty Years' War which called forth the Congress of Westphalia is well known. That it should appear as an important factor in the peace negotiations is only natural. The delegates of the Protestant states refused to meet in a Catholic city, while the Catholic delegates would not go to a Protestant city. The result was a sort of dual congress; the Protestants meeting at Osnabrück, the Catholics at Münster. After this difficult matter was adjusted proceedings were further delayed for a considerable time by

what to us appear as unconceivably foolish bickerings over matters of etiquette and precedence. So much was made of this that William Penn, in drawing up his project for a Federation of Nations, suggested in all seriousness that a building of a special type be constructed for the parliament of the Federation to overcome this difficulty. "To avoid," he said, "quarrell for Precedency, the Room may be Round, and have divers Doors to come in and go out at, to prevent Exceptions." Possibly the horseshoe table at the Quai d'Orsay was an ingenious device to meet the survivals of this problem in our day. Certainly the plan of signing the peace treaty in alphabetical order neatly avoided any difficulties that might have arisen on that score.

Into the complicated terms of the settlement reached in 1648 it would not be profitable to enter. There is a well-known engraving of a part of the Congress by a contemporary, showing the Dutch and Spanish delegates with the first two fingers of the right hand uplifted in the act of solemnly swearing to maintain the treaties. So far as they provided for Dutch and Swiss independence history has approved the arrangement. In practically every other respect, however, the terms which the governments of the Congress thus solemnly swore to maintain were sadly out of accord with the verdict of history. This applies not only to the territorial and other arrangements but to the ideals that underlie them. The great principle of toleration was spurned. The people of a principality were obliged to adopt the religion of the ruling prince. If conscience forbade they had to leave the land, or, as the treaty euphoniously puts it, were guaranteed the right to emigrate. Nationality received no recognition. In its stead was set up a fictitious balance of states for the maintenance of which France and Sweden became the guarantors with a perpetual right of meddling in German affairs. Such provisions for peace were necessarily temporary.

The Congress of Vienna was much shorter than that of Westphalia, but in the nature of its problems and in the significance of the settlement upon the later development of Europe it is easily the most important congress before that of our day. During the eighteenth century even enlightened despotism had held that the end justified the means. Frederick the Great, Maria Theresa, and Catherine II never hesitated to seize whatever they could hope to keep. Success was the only standard of measurement in the relations of states. At the same time unenlightened despotism by profligacy, senseless extravagance, and a criminal neglect of the needs of the people was preparing the way for the deluge that was to sweep away the old order.

The French Revolution with its assertion of personal and popular rights not only destroyed the vicious system of the ancient régime but laid the foundations of a new system. For twenty-three years the long struggle continued, till the enemies of France had become imbued with some of her own spirit, and Napoleon was conquered in a war of liberation waged not by professional soldiers but by nations in arms. France was defeated in the name of the very liberalism and nationality she had herself proclaimed with such enthusiasm.

As a result a new spirit might have been expected to enter into the Vienna Congress. But the reactionary influences were too strong. Not that the new did not appear. One delegate in particular was its exponent, at least in theory. Alexander I, Tzar of Russia, represented the first nation on the Continent that had offered successful resistance to the common enemy. Hence though a comparative newcomer in the councils of Western Europe he had from the first a prestige and leadership not unlike that enjoyed by our own President at the Paris Conference. Eager to play the leading rôle he looked on himself as the champion of liberal ideas, the liberator of Europe. An idealist, with magnanimous impulses, he was an enthusiastic student of political institutions and interested in freedom, especially that of small states like Switzerland, Greece, and the Germanies. "We wish," he said, "to reconquer the independence of nations, with justice, moderation, and liberal ideas as a foundation. Too long have they been effaced by military despotism and by a disregard of the civil and political rights of people." But this Russian Tzar was somewhat of a dreamer and far from being a practical statesman. He had a plan for what he grandiloquently called "the restoration of Poland, the solemn atonement for the great crime of the Empress Catherine." But when it was examined it was found to be a project for getting possession of those parts of Polish territory which Catherine had been obliged to leave to her accomplices in the partitions; "as if her crime had consisted," says Seeley, "not in plundering Poland but in allowing others to share in the booty." The sentiments of the Poles were, of course, not consulted. Little wonder that the veteran diplomats with whom he had to deal counted Warsaw a pawn well played against the Tzar's more dangerous dreams.

It should not be forgotten, however, that in 1815 France was the only kingdom on the Continent whose monarch was restrained by a constitution, that the overthrow of Napoleon had seemed to many a vindication of the old régime, and that Vienna itself was the stronghold of the one nation in Christendom least influenced by revolutionary

ideas. The Congress of Vienna therefore represented a social and a political order totally different from that of today.

In place of the plain men of the people who composed the recent Congress in Paris, we have the representatives of an old order with all the trappings and paraphernalia that go with royalty and autocracy. "All the most illustrious personages in Europe," writes a contemporary, "are represented here in the most illustrious fashion." There were the emperors of Russia and of Austria; the kings of Prussia, of Bavaria, of Würtemberg, and of Denmark; several crown princes, a multitude of lesser princes, archdukes, dukes, greater and lesser statesmen, and diplomats, not to mention money changers, adventurers, and hangers-on.

As the exalted personages arrived they were met and escorted to the residences or apartments allotted them in accordance with their importance. The arrival of the Tzar of Russia and of the King of Prussia was an occasion of first-rate importance. Emperor Francis met them in person. The procession according to the *Moniteur* lasted more than an hour and was attended by salutes of a thousand guns from the ramparts. So distinguished a gathering required entertainment, and the Austrian Court, identifying hospitality with policy, left nothing undone to afford the Congress a continuous round of brilliant private and public functions. Reviews, fêtes, dances, masque balls, dinners, and every other variety of entertainment marks the course of this so-called Congress. Every day cost the Emperor $250,000 and the total cost to his already bankrupt treasury was over thirty-three million florins.

As the Prince de Ligne remarked, the Congress "danced much but progressed little." Indeed he was himself to furnish, as he cynically expressed it when dying a few weeks later, a new diversion in the form of the funeral of a field marshal of France.

From the first the great powers decided to settle matters among themselves. To really assemble the Congress could therefore cause only embarrassment, so it was called, but it never met! Peace with the new government of France had been made at Paris by the eight powers that had overthrown Napoleon, and subsequently the broad lines of the European settlement had been agreed upon between the four principal powers, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Great Britain. The representatives of these powers now definitely arrogated to themselves the functions of the Congress.

Prince Talleyrand was told on his arrival in Vienna: "We have assembled to tell you what the four powers have decided upon." That they were unable to carry out their plan entirely was due chiefly to

the objections raised by the "old fox." As the representative of Louis XVIII, the legitimate king of France, he demanded a place at the council table of the great powers. He knew how to sit, he declared, and he proposed to have a seat. Through his audacity and his ability in making himself the champion of the small states he succeeded in being admitted to the inner circle. "Thenceforward," says Gentz, the official secretary of the Congress, "the representatives of the five powers were the "real and only Congress."

By this small committee the plans for the reconstruction of Central Europe were drawn up. Occasionally representatives of the lesser powers were brought into the discussions on questions that directly affected them. At other times they were merely informed of what had been done and asked to give their indorsement. This so enraged Count Labrador, the representative of Spain, that when the final act was laid before the representatives of the eight signatory powers of the Treaty of Paris, he refused to sign, declaring that many of the questions had not been submitted to the Committee representing this larger group. Van Gagern made a like complaint on behalf of the Netherlands, only to be politely informed by the Duke of Wellington that the act had been agreed upon by the "great powers." Van Gagern professed ignorance as to the "great powers" but without effect, and the settlement of Vienna was ratified by the powers separately, no plenary session being ever held.

The problems of the Congress were difficult in the extreme. The Holy Roman Empire had been dissolved and with it nearly four hundred petty states in Germany. Italy from fifteen political divisions had been reduced to three. Holland, Switzerland, the Austrian Netherlands, and Germany west of the Rhine had all been absorbed by France. Poland had ceased to exist. Altogether about 32,000,000 people were without political organization. Anxious to restore rather than to change, the diplomats fell back on the cynical materialism of the eighteenth century and its time-worn formulas. As Talleyrand said, "To finish the Revolution, the principle of legitimacy must triumph without exception." The assertion of dynastic interests and the restoration of a balance of power became the guiding principles in the work of the Congress.

In accordance with this the Belgians were yoked with the Dutch in spite of their strong divergence from them in language, religion, tradition, and economic interest, that is in all that makes for nationality. This mistake was corrected by the revolution of 1830, which established the independence of Belgium. A similar arrangement uniting Norway

and Sweden lasted longer; the separation of these two countries did not occur till 1905. The Lombards and Venetians were placed under Austrian rule, the petty princes of the Italian peninsula were restored, and the divisions of Italy again set up. The heart of Poland was given to the Tzar, while Prussia was allowed compensation in Germany for the loss of her Poles. Prussia has grown mainly through spoliation, and in 1815 the accessions to her territory were made at the expense of the people of her own race. After the five great powers had finally agreed on the respective territories or areas in which Prussia was to have her reward, a statistical committee was appointed to carve out sufficient territory in each of the four districts allotted her in order to bring the Prussian population to the point it had been before the war. In this way nearly three million Germans, among them Saxons, Rhinelanders, and Westphalians, became Prussians in spite of themselves. This curious phase of the settlement was largely the work of Talleyrand. In his eagerness to save Saxony, the faithful ally of Napoleon to the last, he forced Prussia to take the Rhenish territory. This brought her on the French frontier, gave her one of the most progressive populations of Germany, and in the Westphalian acquisition secured her the great coal deposits that were to become so important a factor in the rapid rise and domination of Prussia in the next hundred years.

In the face of the broad questions of European reconstruction adjusted by the Congress of Vienna, those of the next two congresses were distinctly narrow and restricted. Their problems grew almost entirely out of Turkish rule in Europe. Possibly for this reason the mode of procedure adopted differs so radically. Both the Congress of Paris in 1856 and the Congress of Berlin in 1878 were formally opened. Both met regularly in formal sessions. Over the former Count Walewski presided; over the latter the Iron Chancellor, Bismarck. Every question was brought before the Congress in accordance with a prearranged docket. Discussions and debates were frequent, often bold and impassioned. Contemporaries were edified by this forum-like proceeding in settling great international questions, which so far as the Congress of Paris is concerned was in good faith.

This Congress assembled while the Crimean War was still going on. One of its first acts was the provision for an armistice. It then drew up the terms of peace, which occupied its time for a little over a month. This done it took up several matters of more general interest. It adopted the four rules relating to maritime warfare, known as the Declaration of Paris; it devoted a session to conditions in Italy and

established the Danube Commission to regulate and promote the navigation of that river. Apart from this, however, the Congress of 1856 marked no departure from the reactionary tendencies characteristic of European congresses. Thus while Cavour with great difficulty obtained a brief hearing for the just cause of Italy, the Congress declared "the Sublime Porte admitted to participate in the advantages of the public law and the concert of Europe," and pledged the six Christian powers represented "to respect the independence and integrity of the Ottoman Empire." The reason alleged for this surprisingly magnanimous treatment of the Turk at a time when the existence of his system in Europe was already doomed to destruction was a change of heart on the part of the Sultan and his promises to reform. The real reasons, among which was the determination to cage Russia and prevent her from acquiring too much influence on the Bosphorus, were of course not mentioned. The provision for neutralization of the Black Sea represents a phase of the same policy, and its renunciation at the first favorable opportunity another illustration of how the settlements of congresses are undone.

The Congress of Berlin adhered even more closely than had its immediate predecessor to the problems growing out of the situation in the Balkans. Unlike the Congress of Vienna or that of 1919 it was not called upon to undertake the general reconstruction of Europe. The Near Eastern question was its sole concern, though under very unusual circumstances. Turkey had been defeated by Russia and obliged to sign a disastrous peace, the terms of which threatened her destruction as a European power. The other powers, notably Great Britain and Austria, were alarmed at this disturbance of the balance of power in the Near East and demanded that Russia submit the treaty to a European Congress for revision. After considerable opposition Russia agreed and the Congress of Berlin was called. In the interval the diplomats worked assiduously, so that by the time the Congress actually assembled, the usual secret agreements had been arrived at by the powers chiefly concerned.

Not only had the two principal actors, Great Britain and Russia, come to a definite agreement as to policy, but they had arranged even the details in a formal convention, duly signed and ratified, before the Congress met. Other powers had similar agreements. But the comedy of the Congress broadened into farce in the face of the Anglo-Turkish treaty by which, among other things, England's support was pledged to Turkey in return for the surrender of Cyprus. Through a clerk in the

foreign office the Anglo-Russian treaty was filched and published in the *Globe* the day after the much-acclaimed departure of the British commissioners for Berlin. The thing seemed so preposterous that the public was incredulous. As Bismarck had been let into the secret, the public was ignored and the Congress entered upon its reactionary task. Serbia and Montenegro were not allowed to state their case and obtained insignificant awards of territory. Greeks and Roumanians were given a hearing, but their national aspirations were ignored along with those of Bulgaria.

According to Waddington, the French premier, the blame for the disregard of Greek nationalist claims rested on Beaconsfield. Speaking sometime later to the Greek colony in Paris he said: "We encountered an iron will in the heart of the Congress which forbade our touching the subject of Crete, and that will was Lord Beaconsfield." Turkey must not be weakened because in his belief the integrity of the Turkish Empire was essential to British interests. Besides had he not bartered England's support to the Turk in the secret treaty that gave him Cyprus? Not without reason has he been called the evil genius of the Congress. "If," says a recent English historian, "he had been the Sultan's minister and not the Queen's he would have merited by his skill and fidelity a monument of gold." Yet with an insolence and a swagger characteristic of men who defy the moral sentiment of a nation, he boasted of "peace with honor." He had, he declared, been taken to the top of a high mountain and offered all the kingdoms of the earth if only he would consent to the partition of Turkey. To the recognition of the independence of Serbia, Montenegro, and Roumania, and the autonomy of Bulgaria he had agreed because it was an accomplished fact. This inconsistency with his championship of Turkey he explained on the ground that it aided powerfully in the concentration of Turkey, to which Gladstone sarcastically replied that it seemed to him like concentrating a man by cutting off his limbs.

Disraeli was not alone in this sinister game. He shares the honors with the German chancellor who, in the language of the ancient régime, boasted: "Le Congrès c'est moi." While protesting that Germany's interests in the Near East were not worth the bones of a dead Pomeranian grenadier, this "honest broker" showed the proper solicitude for his ally, Austria-Hungary, and obtained for her the fateful mandatory of Bosnia and Herzegovina, in which he was strongly supported by France and Great Britain. The *London Times* waxed eloquent over this phase of the settlement, calling it "one of the most important political decisions

of the Congress." "Austria," it said, "is no doubt guided by philanthropic as well as political motives. . . . . It is clear that for the sake of the provinces themselves, and even for the sake of the Porte, they should be separated from Turkey."

It is scarcely necessary to call to mind how disastrous were the results of this much-lauded provision. Followed thirty years later by the annexation of the two provinces it became the focal point of the rivalry between Slav and Teuton. The mistaken actions of the Congress of Berlin were therefore an immediate cause of the world-war. The shameless disregard of the rights of the Balkan peoples, the stimulation of imperialistic ambition in Austria, and the bolstering up of the vicious Turkish system were diametrically opposed to the tendencies of nineteenth-century history. The situation was well summed up at the time by Sir Charles Dilke in the House of Commons: "By guaranteeing Turkey and betraying Greece we have set ourselves on the side of what is dead, or, at least, decayed and dying, and against that race which is young and full of life." The presence of the delegates of the Peace Society at Berlin must have had, said the *Times*, something of the effect of a Quaker deputation in the midst of Choctaws or Iroquois accoutred for the warpath.

Manifestly the work of the congresses of the past is far from inspiring optimism. The judgment of history is only too clear on the fact that the settlements have almost invariably been out of accord with the deeper and really dynamic factors in European progress. They were too often dictated by selfish motives of fear, self-aggrandizement, and a desire to bolster up a decrepit system. Speaking of the men at Vienna, Mr. Hazen says, "Theirs could be no 'settlement' because they ignored the factors that alone could make the settlement permanent. The history of Europe from 1815 to the present day has been the attempt to undo this cardinal error of the Congress of Vienna." Of the Congress of 1856 an English historian writes, "The Treaty of Paris was regarded by contemporaries as the crowning act of the wisdom of the European powers; later and more recent history has taught that the work then done has inevitably been undone in all directions." The Congress of Berlin was if anything worse than its predecessors, "as an affirmation of the solidarity of Europe, of the principle that important changes in Europe are matters of European concern and not to be effected without the sanction of Europe," writes Mr. Lord, "the Congress of Berlin is a unique and striking phenomenon. But as a demonstration that the Councils of united Europe are inspired with wisdom, justice, or even

common sense, the events of 1878 are not as gratifying. Even more than its predecessors the Congress of Vienna has left a dubious reputation."

Only when the congresses acted on matters of general rather than nationalistic interests have their arrangements endured. The liberty of conscience provision of 1648, the abolition of the slave trade, and the declaration of the principle of the free navigation of rivers traversing different states in 1815, the establishment of the Danube Commission and the Declaration of Paris of 1856, and the articles on liberty of conscience in the Balkans in 1878, are all parts of ideas and movements that have grown steadily. They represent that larger body of forces of an international nature seen in the two Hague conferences and in the increasing demand for an international law with a sanction. Unfortunately these tendencies were only feebly represented and never received more than secondary consideration.

But while European congresses were thus blind to the underlying forces and tendencies of the age, the century was progressing by leaps and bounds. The Congress of Vienna witnessed the last great triumph of the old political order. During the century that followed, absolutism fought a losing battle, and the Great War gave the *coup de grâce* to the Romanoffs, the Hohenzollerns, the Hapsburgs, and, it is hoped, the Ottoman Turk. But the new political forms brought their own evils, and these have been rendered more virulent by the fact that in diplomacy more than anywhere else have political traditions survived. Nationalism tended to become imperialistic in response to modern industrialism and the call for wider markets. Intense economic rivalry, a feverish race for colonial possessions, and competition in armaments developed. Secret diplomacy was too often dominated by big business and selfish imperialistic ambitions. The Russo-Italian treaty of 1909, recently published, is a revelation on this score.

Self-interest, whether national or individual, is none the less powerful for having taken new guise. It is said that 17,000 new millionaires is one of America's by-products of the recent struggle. But they are only the most successful of their kind, for extravagant prices and exorbitant demands are symptoms of a spirit not limited to one class of society. On the other hand we know that the Great War was not won in the name of materialism. No previous struggle had ever made such appeals to public opinion, or to the individual conscience. Moral force held the line at home as well as at the front. Millions of men gave their lives, and millions more have had the courage to go on living, upheld by the hope that their sacrifice was helping to bring in the dawn of a new era of which the brotherhood of man might be the keynote.

Of these hopes, these ideals, President Wilson became the spokesman at home and abroad. As a newcomer at the council of the nations he had to reckon with the traditions of European diplomacy, with age-long rivalries over strategic frontiers as well as with the no less bitterly contested twentieth-century idea of economic frontiers. But he came as the champion of an ideal embodied in the League of Nations.

Among the noticeable differences between the Congress of 1919 and earlier ones is the character of its personnel. The delegates are neither sovereigns nor the representatives of sovereigns. On the contrary, as Léon Bourgeois said, "they are the representatives of peoples" responsible to the people. "Americans," declared Mr. Wilson, "expect their leaders to speak their thoughts and no private purpose of their own. They expect their representatives to be their servants." Of the thirty states represented nothing can be said here except to direct attention to the striking contrast between the Congress of Vienna and the Conference at Paris. Had Alexander I presented himself at the Quai d'Orsay in January last he would not have been admitted, in spite of the fact that Russia was for three years a faithful and efficient member of the Entente, and had made, numerically at least, larger sacrifices than any other power. In his place is the representative of the United States, taking for the first time a place in the councils of Europe. In 1814 this country was looked upon as so young and remote that she was not even thought of as a factor in the settlement. In 1919 President Wilson occupied practically the first position in the Conference. Similarly the King of Prussia's seat was taken by the representative of another newcomer, Japan. In the place of the Emperor of Austria, who acted as host for the Congress of Vienna, are the representatives of Italy, free and united. In 1814 Metternich declared that "Italy was not a nation, only a geographic expression." In the place of the petty states of Germany, whose princelings played such a sorry part at Vienna, there were at Paris the men of the new nationalities emancipated by the war, such as Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, and Jugo-Slavia. The presence of Venezelos, who is generally recognized as the ablest statesman on Eastern European questions, calls to mind the fact that Greece did not exist in 1814, and in 1878 was slighted and insulted. But with this evidence of the fact that nationality has thus come into its own, the presence of the delegates from the Chinese Republic is even more eloquent on the progress of political democracy.

The representation at Paris of organized labor in certain of the delegations was a silent tribute to the all-important fact that great mass movements are characteristic of our age. Along with this should be

mentioned another new factor at the Paris Conference, namely that of the public opinion of the world. The peoples of the world, awakened to the great issues during the war, followed the proceedings in Paris day by day with keen, critical interest. It was a new situation fraught with great possibilities. That it was not utilized, save on one or two occasions, is well known. The adoption of the old secretive methods, not only as to procedure but, what is of infinitely greater importance, as to the very basis upon which many of the terms of the treaty were made, destroyed this signal advantage that the Conference might have enjoyed over its predecessors.

The Conference met in plenary session for the first time on January 18 for the purpose of organization. This was done by the election of M. Clemenceau, the prime minister of France, as presiding officer, and by creating a number of special commissions, twenty-seven in all, to each of which was assigned a particular problem. The belligerent powers were divided into two groups according to so-called general or particular interests. The former, popularly known as the Big Five, from the first dominated the work of the Congress in the form of a committee consisting of the two leading delegates from each of the five great powers, and therefore of the most influential men at Paris.

Very early, however, Japan decided to participate actively in the meetings of the committee only on matters concerning the Far East and her particular interests. Later, when Italy withdrew, the number of the great powers represented was reduced to three, and the press at once began to speak of the Big Three, It soon abandoned as impracticable all effort at open meetings and publicity. For this it was made the subject of bitter attack. To the doctrinaire it meant simply the revival of the old secret diplomacy and an absolute violation of that Article of the President's Creed which says something about "open covenants openly arrived at."

As everyone knows, this committee, like that at Vienna, became "the real Congress." To the protest of the lesser powers at being relegated to the place of decorative accessories, Clemenceau's characteristic reply was final. The Big Five represented 12,000,000 fighting men, and on the basis of this simple but important fact he informed the Canadian premier that the great powers were not making "proposals," but definite and final decisions. This does not mean, of course, that the smaller powers had no voice. In all matters that especially concerned them they were given a leading place on the particular commission appointed to deal with that subject. But the committee of the great powers was

the body of last resort in all the constructive labors of the Conference. All larger questions were its particular affair, and all minor and special ones were submitted to it, often repeatedly, by the other commissions before definitive decisions were reached. These were then prepared for the general or plenary sessions of the entire Conference for its acceptance. I use the word "acceptance" advisedly, because at no time did the French tiger, acting no doubt in consonance with the prearranged plan of the committee, show any disposition to tolerate discussion. The problems confronting the Conference were so stupendous that any other mode of procedure would have involved endless confusion and delay.

There is a mediaeval prayer, "Lord give us a good shore," meaning a good supply of wreckage. The wreckage of the world-war was overwhelming. To restore international order out of the chaos seemed a superhuman task. The Conference had to make peace with the enemy, involving the difficult problems of reparations and compensations, the delimitation of his frontiers, the destruction of his military power, and the distribution of his colonial possessions. Europe had to be redivided on the basis of national aspirations, a problem surpassing in its difficulties any Chinese puzzle ever devised. The Conference had to adjust the territories of the nations emancipated by the war, and provide adequate economic and strategic frontiers. The boundaries of old states had to be rectified to bring in "unredeemed" populations. There were literally scores of these regional-problem areas. Over and above all these, which the experience of history teaches are of much less consequence than contemporaries suppose, was the work of creating a new international system in the League of Nations.

In the face of labors on so vast a scale the criticisms frequently made in influential quarters, as well as by the general public, that the Conference did not finish the gigantic task more quickly, are positively juvenile. Consider the amount of care and thought, often extending over many years, expended on the proper development, let us say, of a university campus. Then remember how the delegates of the Paris Conference, many of them inexperienced, most of them strangers to each other, and all of them burdened with weighty problems of political responsibilities at home, were asked in the brief space of a few months, and despite secret treaties, to work out a satisfactory solution of the most complicated world-problem ever raised.

Indeed it was manifestly due to the secret treaties, the extraordinary character of which is only gradually coming to light, that we owe the abandonment of the fourteen points early in the history of the

Conference as well as some of the otherwise inexplicable arrangements that have aroused such widespread criticism—as, for example, those relating to Shantung, northern Epirus, Fiume, Thrace, indefinite indemnities, and the mandatory system sarcastically characterized as annexation under anaesthetics.

According to many there is too much evidence of reaction and imperialism. Indeed it would be little short of a miracle if it were not so. Fortunately, however, the present settlement differs from all previous peace treaties on the great and vital point of providing a means for modifying the arrangements by peaceful methods when such action seems advisable.

In the League of Nations the Conference has written into the treaty a new principle as fine as any ever conceived, and no future historians can say of it, as they have repeatedly of the earlier congresses, that there were present no lofty principles.

The proposed League of Nations stands for that co-operation in the collective life of the human race which today more than ever before the world recognizes as the most important principle of progress. Students of history and of government are familiar with the process of the gradual substitution of law and community rights for the club and brute force. The presence in many parts of Europe of the ruins of mediaeval castles is mute testimony to a condition when the feudal baron was a law to himself. By slow degrees other elements of the community, realizing the intolerable state of affairs, joined hands in ridding society of the rule of the mailed fist. The feudal rights of the nobility were suppressed, and a national law and courts to adjudicate disputes were established. Unfortunately the process which substituted the rule of law for the sway of force in the national life has not been carried into the international life of the world. There emancipation from the thraldom of a primitive system of violence and crime has not been achieved.

There is no code declaring the appeal to force illegal, or interdicting even a war of conquest. We punish with imprisonment or death the individual who wilfully causes the death of another, but we condone the act when committed in a collective capacity and on a scale involving the death of millions.

The project of the League as it is written into the treaty is far from perfect. It has many objectionable features. No great projects can spring fully armed and in perfection from a congress torn by so many conflicting interests and prejudices. There is much to be said in favor of having Congress rather than the President appoint our delegates. It

does seem as though the British Empire were given too much influence through its colonial representation. Article X, in guaranteeing the existing states of the world against external aggression, is regarded by many as dangerous, though it is difficult to see any real danger in agreeing with other powers to maintain the time-honored command, "Thou shalt not steal." In its basic principles the plan is sound, and that is clearly what every thoughtful man must see in the proposed League of Nations. "It is founded," says John Burroughs, "on precisely the same idea as every civilized community is founded upon—namely, the sacrifice of personal rights in behalf of the larger rights of all the people." The individual becomes the gainer quite as much as the group. It is a mistake to delude ourselves into thinking that the League of Nations is an opportunity presented by Providence to the United States to live up to its altruistic ideas and save Europe from its petty racial and political disputes. It is infinitely bigger than that. It will not bring the millennium; it may not stop wars, but it presents a sound method of reducing the probability and scope of wars; it affords the means for co-ordinating the many international societies and agencies already in existence; it is bound to be a powerful stimulus to the growth of international law, and it provides a beginning at least for the international consideration of the great economic and social problems. In other words, it bids fair to establish a new system, a new law, and a new order founded on that basic principle of history and human progress—co-operation. It will carry the principle into the collective relationships of the race.

This may involve a modification of the prevalent idea of state sovereignty, that fetish of political theory so much stressed by Rousseau. In practice it has been the excuse for scores of wars, and in a last analysis it invariably yields to stronger forces. The world would have been saved much misery if this theory of sovereignty had been adjusted to the facts long ago. History points to a restricted, not an absolute, sovereignty, and that is exactly what the League of Nations implies. It does not involve the surrender of nationality. It is to be a federation of nations, not a federation without nations. All thinking men, save the extreme socialist and radical groups, are agreed as to the benefits of nationality. Certainly the student of history is aware of its rôle in the past. Some of the finest things the race has produced are associated with small national units like little Attica, Renaissance Tuscany, and Elizabethan England. Nationality is too vital a force to be pushed aside, and it is fortunate that it is quite consistent with the League, which has

at no time contemplated interference in the internal affairs of any state. Internationalism, and especially international-mindedness, are perfectly consistent with nationalism and patriotism. Indeed "it is the quintessence of patriotism—it means the upbuilding and strengthening of national integrity and using it for a high and lofty moral purpose" (Butler).

Nevertheless we are told that it is contrary to the traditions of this country and to the warnings of the Founders against entangling alliances. As to the latter, Washington left the French alliance to his successor, and his opposition to interference in the international affairs of the time was based mainly on the fact that the nation was still too young and undeveloped. As to the former, it is plain that we abandoned our traditional policy of isolation when we took over the Philippines and assumed the championship of the open door in China. Further, even if this had not happened, science and modern invention would make the policy of isolation untenable for a nation with resources and ideals like ours. Anxiety over the effect of the League on our sovereignty as a nation is reasonable, even though very much exaggerated. The Scots feared the Act of Union, and vigorous protests were made. Opposition to the Constitution appeared in nearly all of the thirteen original states, and voices were raised demanding reservations and protection against encroachments upon state rights. It all looks very small and short-sighted now in the face of the magnificent success of the federal principle in the government of these United States.

The situation in the world at large today is not dissimilar. We have the opportunity to assume the leadership in a great world-federation, and to bring to bear upon its organization and development the practical experience of America with the federal type of government. It is an opportunity and an obligation worthy of the best traditions and the highest ideals of our country.

In view of this it is a pity that more tact and statesmanship was not employed from the outset in enlisting the active co-operation of the leaders of different political groups in the work of the Paris Conference. In the colossal task of reconstruction our chief architect relied too exclusively on himself. He failed signally in not calling into consultation the men, who both by training and by popular choice, should have been his colleagues in every stage of the planning. The plan of the League would have been the gainer, and its ratification would not have become so much a matter of political affiliations and animosities. We admire the spirit that would undergo martyrdom for a great cause, but

we condemn the infatuation that prevents co-operation and compromise and thus places the cause itself in jeopardy.

In the meantime the world is waiting. Several nations have ratified the plan. Others are delaying, awaiting the action of our Senate. Japan protests against the omission of the article on racial equality, Germany against what many of its newspapers describe as "Wilson's League," by which "America and England wish to assure themselves the power over the whole world," and China refuses to sign unless her national aspirations are recognized. But even in these countries the drift of opinion, if one can judge by the newspapers, is strongly in favor of the League. The world-war has broken down the old conventions and ideas and brought within the realm of possibility projects and reforms in the reconstruction process that before seemed impracticable save in the distant future.

Leading opinion, moreover, lays stress on the fact that the function of the League, so far as the terms of the treaty are concerned, will be to afford an authoritative means of interpreting and perhaps correcting them as time and circumstances demand, rather than to guarantee the *status quo* established by the treaty. Thus M. Clemenceau says: "It creates the machinery for the peaceful adjustment of all international problems by discussion and consent, whereby [note this] the settlement of 1919 itself can be modified from time to time to suit new facts and new conditions as they arise . . . . it represents a sincere and deliberate attempt to establish that reign of law, based upon the consent of the governed and sustained by the organized opinion of mankind."

Two alternatives confront the world of today. Either we stand by the old order or we help to establish a new one. The issue cannot be evaded. "Settlements may be temporary," says Mr. Wilson, "but the action of the nations in the interests of peace and justice must be permanent." Nations must co-operate for peace or compete in preparations for war. If it is to be the latter, then "the war against war" will not have been won after all. Burdens of militarism tenfold greater than before may perhaps secure peace for a few years, but it will be a peace based on fear, and the end another cataclysm. The insanity of such a program is self-evident. Already there are the rumblings of international mass movements that threaten to sweep aside the existing order altogether. Europe, gaunt and emaciated, her peoples decimated by events which they did not cause, is struggling against the black despair of hunger and anarchy. Men do not live unto themselves alone. "Western civilization is a grandiose Gothic vault . . . . one of its arches is in

Europe, the other in America. If either arch is broken, the other will be endangered" (Ferrero).

In the darkest hours of the war we were buoyed up by John McCrae's magnificent appeal, "In Flanders Fields." Its application is as pertinent today as it was then. From Europe to America, despite ugly signs of reaction on the one hand and anarchy on the other, comes the call:

> To you from failing hands we throw
> The torch: be yours to hold it high!
> If ye break faith with us who die
> We shall not sleep. . . . .

The Archbishop of Chicago

The President of the Board of Trustees

The Cardinal

The President

THE CONVOCATION PROCESSION

CARDINAL MERCIER AT THE UNIVERSITY

By EDGAR JOHNSON GOODSPEED

On October twenty-second Cardinal Mercier visited the University, and the degree of Doctor of Laws was conferred upon him at a special convocation, the one hundred and thirteenth, in Mandel Hall. The occasion was a memorable one in the history of the University.

The Cardinal, with Archbishop Mundelein and the other members of his party, escorted by Professor Edgar J. Goodspeed, arrived at the University a little before three o'clock. The afternoon was mild and fine, and the drive into Harper Court was lined with expectant crowds. Leaving the motors in front of Haskell Oriental Museum, the party was received by Professor Robertson and escorted to the Harper Memorial Library, on the steps of which they were received by President Judson. From the President's Office in Harper the Cardinal and the other guests were escorted through Harper Court across the main quadrangle and Hutchinson Court to Mandel Hall by the Faculties, Senate, and Trustees of the University in cap and gown. The procession was headed by the University Band, playing Mendelssohn's "War March of the Priests," from *Athalie*. It was remarked that the faculty procession was unusually, perhaps unprecedentedly, large. Everyone wanted to see the Cardinal and do him honor. The procession was bright with colored hoods, and its way across the quadrangles was lined on both sides by continuous crowds of people young and old who broke into applause as they caught sight of the Cardinal walking last with President Judson. It was a happy day for the photographer, and there were cameras in plenty, journalistic, official, and amateur. It is safe to say that the Cardinal was photographed not less than a hundred times between Harper and Mandel.

Mandel has probably never held a more representative audience than that which filled it to the last seat when the College Aides and Marshals, representing the student body in the procession, entered it a little after three, to the music of a Belgian mass of the fifteenth century. The rector of the neighboring Church of St. Thomas the Apostle, the Reverend Father Shannon, an alumnus of the University, acted as Convocation Chaplain. The Cardinal was presented to the President

as a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Laws by Professor Albion W. Small, the Dean of the Graduate School of Arts and Literature. It was a great moment when the tall, spare, slightly stooping figure, so like a medieval saint, stood before the President to receive the degree. But the applause waited until the President had read the address to the candidate and had placed in the hands of the Cardinal the diploma and the doctor's hood. Then it burst forth. In its enthusiasm the audience rose to its feet and continued to applaud as the Cardinal returned to his seat and for some time after. When a moment later he was introduced by President Judson to speak, the audience again rose to applaud, as it did in fact at every opportunity through the exercises.

The Cardinal spoke with the greatest tact, simplicity, and feeling. His face, sometimes almost stern in its austerity, softened as he spoke of Belgium and his hope for a good understanding between his country and ours, and between the Belgian universities and the American. His plea to the students of the University to respond to the moral challenge of the war was a touching and winning appeal. Behind all he said the audience felt the great, simple, kindly personality that had stood forth so heroically in those dark years in Belgium and won the respect and admiration of the world.

A unique and delightful feature of the occasion followed the Cardinal's address. Dr. Frank Wakely Gunsaulus, President of Armour Institute of Technology and Professorial Lecturer in the University of Chicago, presented to the Cardinal for the University of Louvain two incunabula of extraordinary rarity and interest; on behalf of the University of Chicago, a copy of the *Catholicon* of Balbus, printed in 1466; and on behalf of the Armour Institute, the first edition of Euclid's *Elements*, printed in 1482. It was evident that this expression of friendship to his own University of Louvain touched the Cardinal deeply, and he expressed his thanks to Dr. Gunsaulus very simply and sincerely. The gift and its acceptance made the friendship of the two universities, of which the Cardinal had spoken, seem more real, for the books were such as any university might prize as among its rarest early printings.

In conferring the degree President Judson said:

Your Eminence, Désiré Mercier, Cardinal of the Holy Roman Church, Professor of Philosophy, Archbishop of Malines, lofty in character, eminent in scholarship, learned and acute critic of philosophical systems, profound thinker upon ultimate problems of truth and reality, calm and fearless witness to the majesty of right, undaunted leader of a harassed flock, who steadfast in will and untiring in effort nobly strengthened the hearts of a suffering people, exemplifying and vindicating in its fulness the dignity of the function of Christian pastor, on nomination of the University

Senate, by authority of the Board of Trustees, I confer upon you the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws in this University, with all the rights and privileges thereto appertaining.

After the degree had been conferred the President introduced the Cardinal in the following words:

The University has had as its guest Marshal Joffre, peerless soldier of the Marne. Today we are proud to have as our guest another of the great figures of the war for humanity, the peerless priest of Belgium. But we think of him not as a priest only; we hold him as one of the foremost of that group of statesmen and soldiers who, by their toil and genius, won the great victory which has saved civilization in these last few years. He is not a priest only, but, in a very real sense, he is a great soldier of humanity and a great statesman.

It is easy to join in enthusiasm when all are of one accord, but the test came to the Cardinal when in his country the triumph of evil seemed assured, when in that little state a relentless power trod under foot all the dictates of humanity and chivalry. Then he never for a moment yielded; he never for a moment failed in his duty to his people.

One can think of the arrogant head of the then victorious state crying, like Henry the Second of England of another prelate: "Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest?" But in Belgium no one dared. The Cardinal was like a granite rock on our New England coast. The surf dashes over it, storm clouds surround it, but in the end the sun breaks through and the crag stands serene, unharmed, immutable.

The University, in honoring our guest today, feels that it is itself honored, and it rejoices to join with other American institutions of learning in claiming him as its son. Members and guests of the University, the Cardinal.

The Cardinal was received with great enthusiasm and spoke as follows:

Mr. President, Colleagues, Friends, Ladies and Gentlemen, and Students of the University:

When I left my country some weeks ago, one of my first ideas was to bring to the institutions of higher learning in the United States a tribute of my admiration and of my fraternal sympathy. I knew since my youth that the universities are the powerful levers for intellectual and moral improvement.

I have spent twenty-five years of my life as professor in the University of Louvain, and now that that center of science and morality has been so greatly damaged, I have felt a special wish to be in touch with your living and flourishing centers of intellectual activity. And therefore I am so happy to be here today. I thank the Chancellor and the President of this University for having invited me to come here. I thank them especially for the great honor I have received from their hands, to be enrolled on the list of their illustrious alumni, and to be considered as one of them. On my side, I shall keep this diploma with respect and gratitude, not only as a symbol of esteem for my country, but, I think I may say, as a wish of stronger friendship and love between our University of Louvain and this one—between our country and your country.

I know what the universities have done during those four years in molding public opinion and in nourishing patriotism in your country. Last night I had the opportunity of telling before a great meeting that America could not enter into the war until

public opinion was won to the idea, and I think I say what the reality is, when I say that the universities of America—very especially the University of Chicago—were among the chief factors in forming public opinion for our common cause and making possible the final triumph against the Central Empires. Therefore I offer to the University of Chicago the tribute not only of admiration but of deep gratitude.

I should like to say a few words to the young students here present and to those who did not find a place in this hall. I should like to say what is the most impressive result of the war on my country. I consider the young men of our universities, of our seminaries, and of our colleges—I consider them as the great hope of Christian civilization for the future, and I like to tell them that I think never in history a generation has risen which has received from the events of the time and finally from God's Providence, more clear, more strong lessons of education than they have received and you have received during this war.

You have had before your eyes two banners, one banner which was stained with innocent blood, darkened with poisoned gases, and blackened by the ashes of all the churches and schools burned and destroyed during this war. And on the other banner you have seen and you have read, and you may read every day, the words of self-sacrifice for justice, for righteousness, for honesty, and for truth.

Young students, you are to make your choice in your souls from this moment and for the future, and I am sure you will follow the example of your great nation of America, and you will for the future understand that life is not given you to enjoy at this present time, but that life is given to you to fulfil a duty, and your duty is the sacrifice of all that duty requires from you for the welfare of Christian civilization.

This, my dear young people, is my wish, this is the matter of my prayers for you, this is our hope for the noble advancement of your university, of your great nation, and for the whole civilization of the Christian world.

Accept these brief words as the expression of my intimate feelings. When I shall go home I shall take with me the remembrance of this so distinguished gathering. I shall say to my people how I have been welcomed in this great scientific institution of Chicago. And I am sure, when I shall tell them something of what I have seen with my own eyes, something of what I have heard here, something of what I have been witness of, my people will be encouraged and will have for you something of the deep feeling of esteem, gratitude, admiration, and I may say of love, that I have in my heart now and will have in the future for you all, for Chicago, and especially for this University of Chicago.

After the Cardinal's address the President announced the gift of two rare books to the Cardinal for the University of Louvain and introduced Dr. Frank Wakely Gunsaulus to make the presentation on behalf of the Armour Institute of Technology and of the University. When Dr. Gunsaulus presented the books to him the Cardinal rose and examined them with undisguised interest, and the picture of these two accomplished book-lovers with the old books between them was a striking and memorable one. In presenting the books Dr. Gunsaulus said:

Your Eminence, Cardinal Mercier, on that terrible night in Louvain, when the winds were carrying the leaves of your precious manuscripts hither and thither, and when the leaves of not less precious books were being borne to destruction, crisping

with flame, there were at least two rare and ancient books which we are certain now from the study of your catalogue, and from closer understanding of the events of that evening of terror, fire, and destruction, were among those which have gone forever.

The first of these books was one of six copies which the world possesses, the *Catholicon* of Balbus. I have no doubt, Sir, but that your own hands have touched in other days another copy of this great work. It was printed, as I need not tell His Eminence, but the audience may desire to know, in 1466, from wooden type brought from your own Belgium to a printing press in Venice. It represents that mighty movement in which the university of which you have been so shining a light played such a prominent part. That university possessed very many specimens of rare and valuable books. No one can know, my friends, except this great guest of this University, what has been the loss and how deep the wound to him and to learning on that night of destruction in Louvain.

The University of Chicago, from its incunabula, containing more than one hundred specimens, has selected this, its finest volume, to send by your hands to your university, that there may be begun now, if it has not been begun earlier, such a collection as will remind you of the great days of the past. And I have the honor, in the name of the Armour Institute of Technology, which contributed hundreds of engineers to the winning of the great war between autocracy and democracy, to present to your Eminence, for the University of Louvain, the first edition of Euclid's *Elements*, printed in 1482. With it we present also our great esteem and our profound affection.

In accepting the books from Dr. Gunsaulus, the Cardinal said:

My colleagues, I need not say to you that I am deeply moved, not only by your generosity, but especially by this disposition to give us two of your own most important volumes for the use of our library. This generosity and great kindness of heart touches me deeply, and I shall be your spokesman to my colleagues in the University of Louvain, who, I am sure, will be moved as I am by this attention.

When at the close of the "Star-Spangled Banner" the organ struck into the Belgian national anthem, the Cardinal's face was seen to brighten with interest and pleasure. A moment later in a low, hardly audible, voice he pronounced the simplest of Latin benedictions and brought the one hundred and thirteenth convocation to a close. And it is as a benediction that his presence at the University will always be remembered.

THE PENDING DEVELOPMENTS AND IMMEDIATE NEEDS OF THE UNIVERSITY

By PRESIDENT HARRY PRATT JUDSON

[A preprint from the Annual Report of the President of the University for 1918–19]

I. New organizations now pending:

1. THE MEDICAL SCHOOLS

In 1916 the Board of Trustees adopted a plan for the organization of medical schools in the University. This plan contemplated two distinct schools, one on the Midway, and the other on the West Side, the latter based on Rush Medical College. It included also definite plans for research.

The University of Chicago Medical School in the quadrangles of the University on the Midway will provide for a four years' course leading to the degree of Doctor of Medicine. A Bachelor's degree in a reputable college will be a prerequisite for admission, but due credit will be given for medical work done previous to graduation from the college.

Members of the Faculty of the Medical School will give their entire time to instruction and research, their practice being practically limited to the University Hospital. A hospital building will be erected in the quadrangles, with a dispensary adjoining. Clinical work will be conducted in connection with these buildings. The fundamental medical science will continue in the main as heretofore in the existing University laboratories and in their extensions. Rush Medical College will be reorganized as the Rush Graduate Medical School of the University of Chicago. The work conducted in this school will be limited to the instruction of students who already hold the degree of Doctor of Medicine. It will be intended for the benefit of practitioners who desire to improve their knowledge in particular subjects, and also for those who desire to become specialists. The Faculty will be partly on the full-time plan and in part will consist of eminent medical practitioners in the city who will give a portion of their time to instruction in the School. The present building of Rush Medical College will be replaced by a modern medical laboratory. Contracts of affiliation have already been made with the McCormick Memorial Institute and the Sprague Memorial Institute. These two institutes will conduct their

research activities in connection with both schools and under the general direction of the University. Other provisions for medical research are expected to be added to these.

2. RESEARCH INSTITUTES

For special work in the encouragement of research, plans have been adopted for the organization of certain institutes for which funds have been provided and for which it is expected that funds will be provided.

The Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago will conduct research especially in the Near East in archaeology. The recent political changes in that part of the world, it is believed, will make it possible to carry on investigations which have heretofore been, to say the least, extremely difficult. Professor James H. Breasted, Chairman of the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures, has been appointed Director of the Institute and has been given leave of absence for the year 1919–20 in order to pursue active work in the field. Funds have been provided for this work by the generosity of Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr.

The Board of Trustees has approved the formation of a Research Institute in Physics and Chemistry, and plans are under way for the development of the work in question. The immediate need for the first step toward this organization is the provision of adequate facilities in the Department of Chemistry in the way of a building in which can be housed research work and the most advanced graduate work. Kent Chemical Laboratory, already greatly overcrowded, will be given over to the instruction of undergraduates in Chemistry.

The arrangement with the Sprague and McCormick research institutes will form the basis of research in the medical departments.

3. GIFTS ALREADY MADE FOR RESEARCH[1]

The Gustavus F. Swift Fellowship in Chemistry, endowed by Mrs. Gustavus F. Swift, Chicago, as a memorial of her husband, Gustavus F. Swift. It yields about $770 to the incumbent annually appointed, and is awarded for especial ability in research on the nomination of the Department of Chemistry and the recommendation of the President of the University

The Hoskins Fellowship in Chemistry, which yields $400 for the year 1919–20, and is awarded to a student pursuing research work in Chemistry.

[1] On the organization of the Medical School the research fellowships in medicine and in surgery will be awarded. The fellowship in Bacteriology and in Pathology is awarded in alternate years.

The Home Economics Fellowships, which yield $600 to students in the Department of Home Economics for the year 1919–20. Candidates present evidence of graduate work in an institution of high standing. A part of the time of the women awarded these fellowships is to be spent in research in nutrition or related fields.

The American Council of Research Fellowships in Physics and Chemistry, provided by the Rockefeller Foundation, are awarded by the American Council of Research. Fellows may choose the institution in which they desire to pursue research. Applications are made to the American Council of Research, Washington, D.C.

The Mr. and Mrs. Frank G. Logan Research Fellowships, endowed by Mr. Frank G. Logan, are available for research in Medicine, Surgery, and Bacteriology and Pathology. Each fellowship affords an annual stipend of $1,000.

Two industrial fellowships in the Department of Botany have been established by the Gypsum Industries Association at the University of Chicago. Each fellowship provides a stipend of $750 and also $300 for the purchase of special material and apparatus.

The Fleischmann Company has renewed the fellowship in the Department of Physiological Chemistry, which was established in 1917. The income of the fellowship provides $750 a year for two years.

It has from the first been the policy of the University to encourage research in all departments so far as circumstances have allowed. In order, however, to insure the conduct of investigation on an adequate basis it is necessary that endowments be provided which are devoted wholly to research. The continued increase in the number of undergraduate students necessarily draws income from the endowment funds for imperative undergraduate instruction. Thus the inevitable tendency is to increase the funds spent on undergraduates, thereby lessening the funds available for advanced graduate work and for research.

II. New buildings already authorized by the Board of Trustees, for which funds have been given:

1. THE ALBERT MERRITT BILLINGS HOSPITAL

The sum of $1,000,000 has been given the University by members of the Billings family for the erection of a hospital building to be used for teaching and research. This building will be erected in the quadrangles of the University and will accommodate approximately 250 beds. Mr. Charles A. Coolidge, of Boston, has been appointed architect, and Dr. Winford Smith, director of the Johns Hopkins Hospital at Baltimore, Maryland, has been appointed consultant.

2. THE MAX EPSTEIN DISPENSARY

Mr. and Mrs. Max Epstein have given $100,000 for the building of a dispensary to be erected in proximity to the hospital.

3. THE RAWSON LABORATORY

Mr. Fred H. Rawson, of Chicago, has given $300,000 for a medical laboratory to be erected in connection with the Presbyterian Hospital for the conduct of graduate work in medicine.

4. THE UNIVERSITY CHAPEL

In the final gift of Mr. John D. Rockefeller, December, 1910, it was stipulated that $1,500,000 should be reserved for the erection of a University Chapel. Mr. Bertram A. Goodhue, of New York, has been appointed architect, and the plans are proceeding steadily. The building will be erected on the east side of the block in which the President's house stands. It is expected that this building will be adapted for all general religious services, and for such formal services as the various convocations. It is hoped to make it a beautiful specimen of Gothic architecture. The tower above the crossing will rise approximately 216 feet from the ground. The highest towers at present on the quadrangles are those of the Harper Memorial Library, whose height is 135 feet. The height of the Mitchell Tower is 127 feet, 3 inches.

5. THE THEOLOGY BUILDING

In 1916 a fund of $200,000 was given to the University by a donor, whose name is withheld, for the erection of a building for theological instruction. The firm of Coolidge and Hodgdon were designated as architects of this building and the plans are practically completed at the present time. The site will be immediately north of Haskell Oriental Museum, the Theology Building thus being a counterpart of Rosenwald Hall, facing the central quadrangle.

6. THE BOND MEMORIAL CHAPEL FOR THE DIVINITY SCHOOL

In 1916 Mrs. Joseph Bond gave the University $50,000 for the erection of a chapel building suitable to the needs of the Divinity School. Messrs. Coolidge and Hodgdon were appointed architects. The building will be erected on the north side of the quadrangles formed by the Divinity dormitories to the west, the Classics Building, and (ultimately) the Modern Language Building on the south and Haskell Oriental Museum on the east. It will be connected by a cloister with the Theology Building. The plans are practically completed, and the little chapel will be a beautiful addition to the quadrangles.

7. THE QUADRANGLE CLUB

By the contract between the University and the Quadrangle Club, in accordance with which the present property of the Club was transferred to the University, it was agreed that the University should erect a new clubhouse costing not less than $100,000. This building will be erected on the corner of Fifty-seventh Street and University Avenue, immediately opposite the Reynolds Club. Mr. Howard Shaw, of Chicago, is the architect. The plans are practically complete. Owing to the present condition of the building industry it will no doubt require more than the ordinary time for the erection of these buildings, but construction will not be long delayed.

The funds provided for the foregoing seven buildings now total $3,250,000.

III. Buildings now needed, but for which funds have not yet been provided:

1. A RESEARCH LABORATORY FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

Kent Chemical Laboratory is overcrowded with students. The need of developing research in Chemistry has become increasingly important. In order to adapt the work of the department as it now exists and to develop it along research lines, there is needed a building fully equipped which will house the research work and advanced graduate work, thus leaving Kent Chemical Laboratory for the ordinary purposes of the department. Such a building as is needed would cost perhaps about $350,000 and would be erected directly west of Kent Chemical Laboratory.

2. THE MODERN LANGUAGE BUILDING

3. THE HISTORICAL GROUP BUILDING

These two buildings, the first on the west and the second on the east, will complete the group of which the Harper Memorial Library is the center. The Library is overcrowded, and the completion of the group is a very pressing necessity. The original estimate some years ago was $200,000 for each of these two buildings. Of course under the present economic conditions the cost will be greatly in excess of that.

4. THE ADMINISTRATION BUILDING

At present the administrative offices are distributed through different buildings and are more or less crowded and inconvenient. With the present number of students it would add greatly to the efficiency of administrative work if the building so long desired could be erected. A suitable building providing not merely for present needs but for future

development of the University would cost not less than $500,000. The generous gift of Mr. Andrew MacLeish of $100,000 could be applied to this purpose.

5. A BUILDING FOR THE UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL
6. A BUILDING FOR THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION GYMNASIUM

The School of Education Quadrangle is incomplete. Emmons Blaine Hall is well adapted to the purposes of the College of Education and of the Elementary School. Henry Holmes Belfield Hall provides for a part, but for only a part, of the work of the University High School. The efficiency of that interesting laboratory school would be greatly increased should it be adequately housed.

The present temporary gymnasium used by the two laboratory schools has long since been out of date and should be replaced by an adequate modern structure, permanent in character.

The High-School building would call for probably $500,000 and the gymnasium might be erected for $250,000.

7. STUDENTS' OBSERVATORY

A small building is needed for a students' observatory to be erected at some convenient place in the quadrangles. This of course is not for research and does not require the extreme accuracy of construction requisite in the Yerkes Observatory at Williams Bay. Perhaps a students' observatory could be constructed for $50,000.

8. RESIDENCE HALLS FOR WOMEN
9. RESIDENCE HALLS FOR MEN

The housing question is becoming a serious one. During the war very little building has been done in the vicinity of the University. Meanwhile the increase of non-University population has been considerable, and the increased number of students which came when peace conditions returned calls for additional living facilities. It is extremely necessary that the University should at once extend very largely its capacities along this line. The Board of Trustees has authorized the Committee on Buildings and Grounds to obtain plans for the new women's quadrangle of resident halls to be erected immediately north of Ida Noyes Hall. Similar plans must be obtained for the men's quadrangle, which will be in one of the blocks west of the Cobb Hall group.

10. UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

The interesting work of University College in the loop district provides instruction now for over a thousand adult students. This work has been growing and should be provided with permanent quarters. A

building suitable for the instruction conducted in the central part of the city will very greatly facilitate the service which the University may render to men and women who are engaged in some business or professional occupation, but who nevertheless are able to continue their studies in the classes provided by University College in the evening, late afternoon, and on Saturdays.

IV. Additional endowment needed:

It is of course a common impression that the University of Chicago has such large funds that it can have no further needs in the way of endowments. Those conversant with endowments, however, are aware that the endowments of all universities are limited to specific purposes, and therefore that the Board of Trustees is not free to divert funds at will from one object to another. That is distinctly true of the University of Chicago. Its endowments have been in the past adequate to carry on certain specific activities, and enlargement of its functions requires additional funds.

The enormous economic changes since 1914 have been such as to reduce the purchasing power of the income received by the University from its investments. That income has not materially increased in amount, and, as has been said, has materially decreased in what can be done with it. In other words the dollar, as everybody understands, does not now buy what the dollar could buy five years ago. It follows that the University needs further endowment, first, to carry on its present activities, and secondly, in order to carry out the important developments of the immediate future.

1. The Board of Trustees has been able recently to add a little over $100,000 to the annual budget for increasing the salaries of the teaching staff. While this afforded a substantial relief from a difficult situation, at the same time there is need of a material addition for the coming year in order to bring the budget up to actual need. This will require an additional endowment of perhaps $2,000,000.

2. In 1916–17 a fund of approximately $5,500,000 was secured for the development of the medical schools of the University. Of this fund about $4,000,000 were set aside for endowment. The very great increase in the cost of material and of living is such that in order to establish these schools on a sound basis it is obvious that additional endowment should be provided. Not less than $2,000,000 more should be in hand by the time of the opening of the schools.

3. A detailed statement has been made in the foregoing paragraphs showing the immediate need of the University for the construction of

new buildings. In order to carry on the present work of the University and that which should come in the immediate future, these buildings must be provided, but all educational administrators know that the cost of maintenance of new buildings is a material item and is an immediate charge on the income from invested funds. Therefore for each new building provided there should be provided at the same time additional endowment. How much that endowment should be will of course depend on the nature and cost of the building involved.

4. The definite provision for research heretofore recommended should involve above all adequate endowment funds. These funds should be provided for specific purposes.

The generous gift of Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., provides for the Oriental Institute for a period of five years. The Research Institute of Physics and Chemistry should be the next in order, and needs an early provision for which the capital fund of $1,000,000 would be adequate at the outset. As research is provided in other departments or groups of departments, additional funds should be provided.

The University of Chicago is a growing institution. It has now upward of 11,000 alumni, and they are taking a worthy place in the activities of life, justifying the large benefactions which have made possible their education. The development of the University has followed conservative lines, each new plan being studied with care in advance, and coming naturally from what has already been made permanent. The needs to which attention is here invited are a pressing call on the friends of the University for the immediate future.

THE SALARY SCALE IN THE FACULTIES OF ARTS, LITERATURE, AND SCIENCE

At the time of the organization of the University in the autumn of 1891, the following was fixed as the scale of salaries: head professors, $4,000 to $5,000; professors, $3,000; associate professors, $2,500; assistant professors for a four-year term, $2,000; instructors for a three-year term, $1,200, $1,400, $1,600; associates, two-year term, $1,000, $1,100. In forming the original faculty some heads of departments were given salaries exceeding $5,000, but often appointments to that rank were made on the foregoing scale.

In 1907 the salary question was again considered by the Board, and the following new scale was adopted: heads of departments (head professor), minimum $4,500, maximum $6,000; professors not heads of departments, minimum $3,000, maximum $4,500; associate professors, minimum $2,500, maximum $3,000; assistant professors, four years, $2,000; on reappointment, maximum of $2,500; instructors, three years, $1,200, $1,400, $1,600; on reappointment, maximum of $1,800; associates, two years, $1,000 to $1,200.

In January, 1911, the Board discontinued future appointments to the rank of head professor, providing thereafter that the administration of departments should ordinarily be conducted by a chairman, to be appointed by the president for a three-year term, with the possibility of reappointment.

At a meeting of the Board in May, 1919, a committee was appointed to take into consideration an increase in the salaries of the teaching staff. This committee reported September 9, 1919, and recommended the following scale, which was adopted by the Board: professors, minimum, $4,000, maximum $7,000; associate professors, minimum $3,000, maximum $3,600; assistant professors, four years, minimum $2,100, maximum $2,700; instructors, three years, $1,500, $1,600, $1,700. Associates, two years, $1,200, $1,300. Within the limits of the foregoing scale additions were made to salaries in the teaching staff of the University approximating $100,000.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

By J. SPENCER DICKERSON, *Secretary*

STANDING COMMITTEES OF THE BOARD

The following standing committees of the Board were appointed at the meeting held July 8, 1919:

Committee on Finance and Investment: Howard G. Grey, *Chairman;* Jesse A. Baldwin, A. C. Bartlett, C. L. Hutchinson, Julius Rosenwald.

Committee on Buildings and Grounds, C. L. Hutchinson, *Chairman;* Jesse A. Baldwin, *Vice-Chairman;* T. E. Donnelley, Howard G. Grey, Harold F. McCormick.

Committee on Instruction and Equipment: Charles R. Holden, *Chairman;* Charles W. Gilkey, F. W. Parker, H. H. Swift.

Committee on Press and Extension: T. E. Donnelley, *Chairman;* F. W. Parker, *Vice-Chairman;* E. B. Felsenthal, R. L. Scott, Willard A. Smith.

Committee on Audit and Securities: Robert L. Scott, *Chairman;* E. B. Felsenthal, *Vice-Chairman;* C. R. Holden, Wilber E. Post, W. A. Smith.

LA VERNE NOYES FOUNDATION

The Board of Trustees has voted that the entire available net income of the La Verne Noyes Foundation shall be used for the purposes designated by the donor in creating the fund, without diminution for depreciation of buildings or amortization of leaseholds, the deed of gift seeming to indicate a desire and intention to give to returning soldiers and sailors themselves the largest advantage available under the Foundation. Furthermore, the Board has voted that for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1919, the entire income from the endowment of the Foundation shall be used in providing scholarships without reserving for instruction that portion of the income which the deed of gift permits to be expended for instruction.

The result of these two actions is the provision of an appreciably larger number of scholarships for the current year than otherwise would have been the case.

STUDENT ARMY TRAINING CORPS

Newton D. Baker, Secretary of War, has sent to the President of the University a communication of which the following forms a part:

While the plan of the Student Army Training Corps was a logical if not imperative step at the time when it was undertaken, when a long war appeared to be in

prospect, and when it was necessary to mobilize the entire energies of the nation, the signing of the armistice on November 11 prevented it from ever being fully carried into effect. The abrupt termination of the Student Army Training Corps before sufficient time had elapsed for its complete development, the interruptions due to the influenza epidemic and to other conditions incident to the early stages of organization, created difficulties which could not fail seriously to disturb the order of academic life. I am, therefore, glad of this opportunity to express to you my recognition of the patience, devotion and skill with which both teachers and executives played the parts which they were asked to play. The proposals of the War Department almost invariably met with a prompt and cordial response, and a willingness to make very genuine sacrifices where these seemed to be required by the nation's military need.

In the matter of the financial adjustments which were recently concluded the institutions have shown not only forbearance in their claims, but in many cases great generosity in the actual terms of the settlement. It is a fact which is deserving of public recognition that the service rendered by the educational institutions has been wholly without pecuniary profit to themselves. The settlements have one and all been made upon the principle that the Government should protect institutions only from actual financial loss. The institutions have asked no more, but on their own part have often given more, not only in personal devotion, but in the use of very valuable property and other educational facilities at their disposal. For all this service, in so far as it relates to the War Department, I beg to express my profound gratitude.

Mr. E. K. Hall, Business Director of the Committee on Education and Special Training of the United States War Department, in the same connection has written as follows:

The response of the institutions of higher education throughout the country to the Government's call in 1918 was as magnificent as it was inspiring. Without reservation they placed their facilities and their services in the hands of the Government without hesitation and without thought of profit or reward. They accepted the contracts which the Committee on Education and Special Training placed before them and relied upon the assurance that they would be justly treated and that sooner or later all inequities would in some way be adjusted. They seemed to be actuated solely by a desire to serve and co-operate with the plans of the War Department. This same spirit has continued through the period of adjustment and settlement. . . . . This Department wishes to take this opportunity to publicly acknowledge and express its appreciation of the patriotic and fair-minded attitude and co-operation of the educational institutions of the country which have contributed so largely to the successful completion of the work of the Department.

DEATH OF JUDGE FREDERICK A. SMITH

Judge Frederick A. Smith, Second Vice-President of the Board, a Trustee of the University for twenty-nine years, one of the original Trustees nominated by the American Baptist Education Society, and selected in the articles of incorporation, died July 31, 1919.

At the meeting of the Board held on September 9, 1919, Mr. Andrew MacLeish, chairman of a committee appointed to prepare a memorial

of Judge Smith, presented the following, which was adopted and ordered spread upon the minutes:

RESOLVED, That in the death of Judge Frederick A. Smith, one of our number for twenty-nine years, the Board of Trustees of the University of Chicago has sustained a loss of highest value and importance, and of which we are mournfully conscious. This sense of bereavement relates not only to the kindly, patient and courteous qualities that marked the man in the long period of his service on our Board, but perhaps more so to the conspicuous gifts of Wisdom, Prudence, Conservatism, Fidelity and Vision that he brought to the consideration of the University's affairs and problems.

A kindly man, an upright judge, a broad-minded, philanthropic and useful citizen has gone to his deserved rest.

For more than a quarter of a century Judge Smith participated with us in the work of building up the University. He was a charter member of its Board, for many years its Vice-President, and, as a member of important committees, a participant in the work connected with the founding and maintenance of our great institution. His equable disposition, splendid judgment and energy manifested themselves on all occasions.

In his early career he served with distinction in the Civil War, and endeared himself to his comrades in the same way in which he endeared himself to us and to all who came within the sphere of his influence. Indeed, his magnetic personality was felt by all with whom he became in any wise associated.

His memory will always be cherished by those who had the good fortune to come into contact with him, and so that future generations may know in what esteem he was held by his contemporaries, this record of his deeds is now directed by his fellow members of the Board of Trustees to be inscribed upon the minutes of its proceedings.

APPOINTMENTS

In addition to reappointments the following appointments have been made by the Board of Trustees:

Morton Snyder to an instructorship in the Department of Education and the principalship of the University High School, from October 1, 1919. Mr. Snyder was for ten years assistant principal of the Newark (New Jersey) Academy, and for two years inspector of high schools in Connecticut.

Dr. Ralph B. Seem as Director of the Albert Merritt Billings Hospital from January 1, 1921, and as assistant consultant on the plans for the hospital, from July 1, 1919.

Dean DeWitt Lewis to a professorship of Surgery in the University of Chicago Medical School, from January 1, 1921.

John T. McNeill to an instructorship in Church History, from July 1, 1919.

Ben H. Nicolet to an assistant professorship in the Department of Chemistry, from October 1, 1919.

Florence Richardson as lecturer in the School of Commerce and Administration, from October 1, 1919.

Major James C. Lewis, Jr., to an assistant professorship of Military Science and Tactics, from July 1, 1919.

Captain Preston T. Vance to an assistant professorship of Military Science and Tactics, from July 1, 1919.

Thomas G. Allen to an instructorship in the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures, from October 1, 1919.

John Edward Gordon to an instructorship in the Department of Hygiene and Bacteriology, from October 1, 1919.

Gordon J. Laing to the chairmanship of the Department of Latin Language and Literature, from October 1, 1919.

Rutledge T. Wiltbank to an assistant professorship in the Department of Psychology, from October 1, 1919.

Paul Eugene Klein as teacher in the Manual Training Department in the Elementary and High Schools, from October 1, 1919.

Theodore Clarence Newman as teacher in Shop Courses, from October 1, 1919.

Leona F. Bowman to an instructorship in the Department of Home Economics, from October 1, 1919.

Evelyn Halliday to an instructorship in the Department of Home Economics, from January 1, 1920.

Florence B. King to an instructorship in the Department of Home Economics, from October 1, 1919.

Sybil Woodruff to an instructorship in the Department of Home Economics, from October 1, 1919.

Marion G. Miller as teacher in the Elementary School, from October 1, 1919.

Sarah F. Pellett as teacher in the High School, from October 1, 1919.

Theodora Goldsun Pottle as teacher in the High School, from October 1, 1919.

Marjorie Parker as teacher in the Elementary School, from October 1, 1919.

Clyde John Bollinger as teacher in the High School, from October 1, 1919.

Ernest Hugh Schideler as teacher in the High School, from October 1, 1919.

Earl Joseph Belcher as teacher in the High School, from October 1, 1919.

Edith Ethel Shepherd as teacher in the Elementary School, from October 1, 1919.

Mildred Virginia Talbot to an instructorship in the Department of Home Economics, from October 1, 1919.

PROMOTIONS

Instructor Arthur J. Dempster, of the Department of Physics, to an assistant professorship, from October 1, 1919.

Arno B. Luckhardt to an associate professorship in the Department of Physiology, from July 1, 1919.

RESIGNATIONS

The Board of Trustees has accepted the resignations of the following members of the faculties:

Carl Kinsley, Professor in the Department of Physics, effective July 14, 1919.

Clara Blanche Knapp, Instructor in Home Economics, School of Education, effective September 30, 1919.

Louise Patterson, Instructor in Physical Culture, effective September 30, 1919.

Helen Reid Goodrich, Instructor in Home Economics, School of Education, effective September 30, 1919.

John C. Weigel, Instructor in the Department of Germanic Language and Literature, effective September 30, 1919.

Franklin W. Johnson, Principal of the High School, effective September 30, 1919.

Katherine L. McLaughlin, Teacher in the Elementary School, effective September 30, 1919.

Allen L. Shank, Teacher of Manual Training in the High School and the Elementary School, effective September 30, 1919.

Nama A. Lathe, Teacher of Art in the High School, effective September 30, 1919.

Fred T. Rogers, Assistant Professor in the Department of Physiology, effective September 30, 1919.

Andrew C. Ivy, Instructor in the Department of Physiology, effective September 30, 1919.

MISCELLANEOUS

An appropriation has been made for purchases for Haskell Oriental Museum.

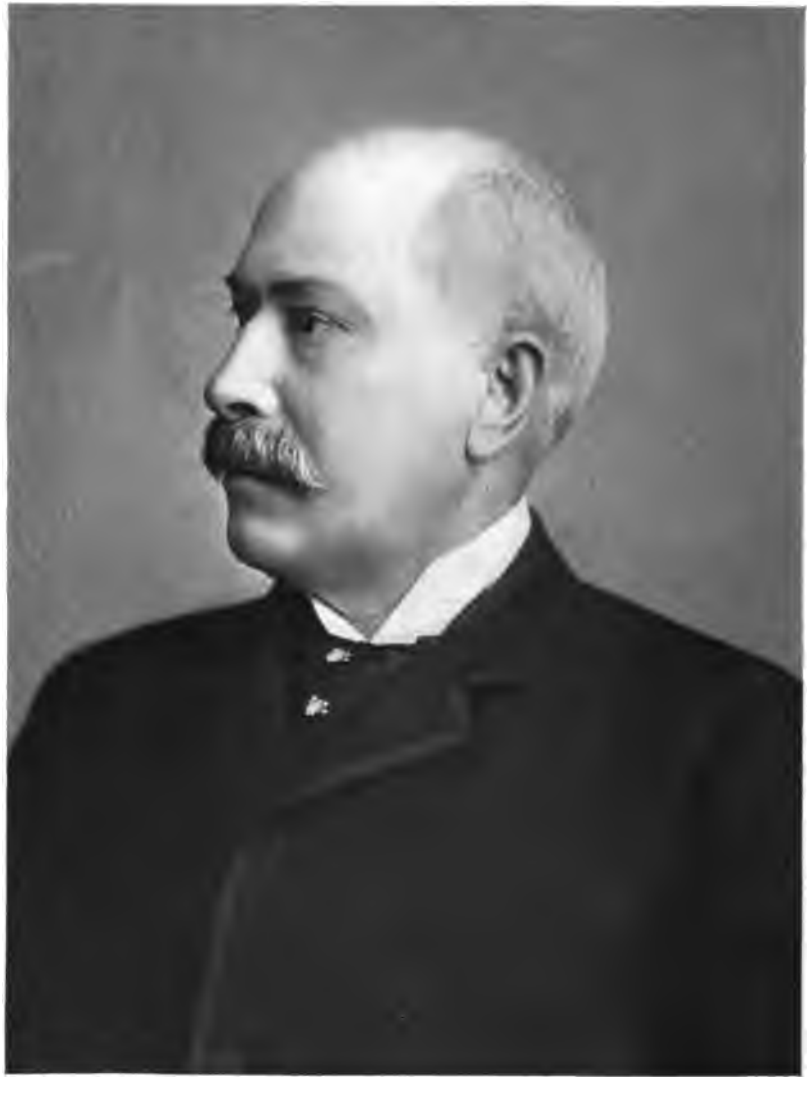
Under the will of the late La Verne Noyes, the donor of Ida Noyes Hall and the creator of the La Verne Noyes Foundation, paintings, other works of art, furniture, rugs, and household furnishings suitable for Ida Noyes Hall were bequeathed to the University.

The University has purchased the property at the northeast corner of Fifty-sixth Street and Greenwood Avenue, immediately north of Stagg Field.

Mr. Lessing Rosenthal, of Chicago, has given to the University a collection of 551 volumes in classical philology; philosophy; foreign, especially German, law, and literature, particularly German. The Associate Director of the Libraries reports that "many of these books will prove valuable additions to the various classes or departments to which they relate." The thanks of the Board of Trustees were formally expressed to Mr. Rosenthal for his generous contribution.

In addition to the bequest of $3,000 for a scholarship, reported in the *University Record* for July, the will of Mrs. Harriet E. Morse includes a gift of the residuum of her estate in the event of her son, Walter H. Morse, "leaving no child or children or descendants of a child or children him surviving."

Work upon the plans for the University Chapel is proceeding in the offices of the architect, Bertram G. Goodhue. Progress, too, is being made in perfecting the plans for the Albert Merritt Billings Hospital, of which Charles A. Coolidge is the architect. It is expected that both sets of plans will soon be ready for submission to the Committee on Buildings and Grounds.



SIDNEY ALBERT KENT

SIDNEY ALBERT KENT

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

These sketches are written to perpetuate the remembrance of the benefactors of the University of Chicago. Their lives have been built into and become a part of its history, and in it they continue to live. Through its activities they serve the world. The remembrance of the servants of mankind should not perish. Future generations should know, not their names only, but who they were and what they did.

One of the earliest of the large benefactors of the University was Sidney A. Kent, who for nearly fifty years was a Chicago business man and for much of that time a very prominent one. He was of New England extraction and was born in Suffield, Connecticut. The Kents migrated from England to Massachusetts about 1630 and were among those who soon after that date secured permission to proceed to the valley of the Connecticut and hew out a home for themselves in what was then the remote western wilderness. Springfield, Massachusetts, was founded, and the settlers soon began to spread out into the surrounding country. One company went ten miles down the river and organized a town on the western bank which they called Southfield and later contracted into Suffield. The shores of the new town, unlike those to the north and south, rose abruptly from the bed of the Connecticut and continued westward in a succession of heavily wooded ridges along which the north and south roads or streets ran, the chief of these perhaps being appropriately called High Street. The township was covered with an almost unbroken forest, so that the settlers were compelled literally to hew their homes out of the wilderness. Among the first of these settlers was Samuel Kent, to whom a farm of sixty acres was allotted in 1669, two hundred and fifty years ago. The town of Suffield was on the border-line between Massachusetts and Connecticut. Having been settled from Springfield it fell naturally under the government of Massachusetts, although it lay entirely within the natural and, indeed, legal boundaries of Connecticut. The people early instituted efforts to have their allegiance transferred, but did not succeed in doing so for many years. In 1723–24 the electors made John Kent their agent in the matter and in the end succeeded in becoming a part of Connecticut.

Though the first Kents of Suffield were, like all the other settlers, farmers, younger sons soon began to leave the soil and seek their fortunes in other fields of effort. Not a few rose to eminence, one of the most distinguished of these being Chancellor Kent, author of the well-known Kent's *Commentaries*, the most famous of early American law books.

The family did not lack prominence in Suffield itself. Samuel Kent was three times a member of the board of selectmen. John was a representative of the town in the general court. When, a hundred years after the founding of the town, the struggle for American independence came, the men of Suffield were among the first to respond to the call to arms. Within forty-eight hours after the news of the battle of Lexington reached the town, a company of one hundred and eleven men were on their way to Boston to fight for their liberties. Their captain was Elihu Kent, the first of the many of that name who entered the patriot army.

In 1870 the town celebrated its bicentennial anniversary and published an account of the event in a small volume. A few portraits of representative citizens were included and among them appears the face of Henry P. Kent. One of the streets of the village bears the family name Kent Avenue.

Sidney A. Kent, the subject of this sketch, was a direct descendant, in the sixth generation, of that Samuel Kent who was one of the earliest settlers of Suffield. His great-grandfather, Deacon Amos Kent, was the great-grandson of Samuel, the early settler. Like his father and his grandfather the deacon, Amos was a farmer, and his son and grandson followed him on the ancestral farm.

It goes without saying that the first settlers of Suffield were religious, and that a Congregational church was the first organization attempted. In the course of time the Baptists organized and some of the Kents were among the constituent members of the Baptist church. The Baptists became strong, well-to-do, and lovers of learning, and in 1833 established the Connecticut Literary Institution, which has been one of the chief glories of the town. The churches, the schoolhouse, and the Literary Institution naturally formed a center about which gathered the industrial and business life of the township and became the village of Suffield.

The farm of Deacon Amos was about one mile west of the village. On this farm on July 16, 1834, Sidney A. Kent was born, son of Albert and Lucinda (Gillett) Kent. There were two other sons and two daughters,

all, except one brother, being older than Sidney. The family occupied a good position in the community. They were in comfortable circumstances. The farmhouse was so good that when the boy born in it in 1834 retired from business sixty years later, a man of large wealth, he made it with some additions and improvements his principal place of residence. He was fortunate in having two older sisters and a brother four years older than himself who had much to do in molding his character. The brother, Albert E. Kent, was of exceptional ability and high character and exercised a strong and beneficent influence over his younger brother. It is to be regretted that nothing has been left on record of the boyhood of Mr. Kent. We know, however, that his youth was spent in one of the most attractive countrysides in America. One writer, telling the story of the bicentennial celebration, says of Suffield, "It is one of the very loveliest of the many beautiful towns in the splendid valley in which it is situated. Its fertile and carefully cultivated farms, its broad and neatly kept streets, its fine roads, its magnificent residences, its superb churches, its commodious educational structures, all evince a high degree of culture and prosperity." One of the speakers at the celebration, referring to High, now Main Street, on and near which the Kents had their homes, characterized it as "magnificent beyond comparison with any other street east or west," and the speaker was a resident of St. Louis. From this street, which was literally the "high street," young Kent had under his eye the lovely valley of the Connecticut from Springfield, nine miles north, to Hartford, seventeen miles south. Looking westward he saw only three or four miles away one of the peaks of the Mount Tom Range, with the almost perpendicular bluffs of Manateck Mountain to the south, and a few miles to the northwest were the far-famed Berkshire Hills. And everywhere were brooks making their way through the ridges to the river. It was a delightful spot in which to be born and spend one's boyhood and to which to return in the evening of life.

Young Kent grew up on his father's farm, but his experience as a farmer's son was so exceptionally happy that it seems to have been the dream of his life to spend his last years amid the scenes of his boyhood and on the ancestral acres. There were no remembrances of grinding toil and youthful hardship, but rather of beautiful landscapes, of happy days in the forests and along the streams, of an attractive home life, and of pleasant years at school. The village of Suffield was small, but it was an educational center, and the enthusiasm for culture attained its height during the youth of Sidney Kent. It was during those years that

the Connecticut Literary Institution was established and every wide-awake boy in the township conceived an ambition for an education. No boy was more wide awake than young Kent and at sixteen he was a student in the Institution. Entering in 1850 he pursued his studies for two or three years until he was fitted to become a teacher. Whether he graduated may be doubted.

In the spring of 1853 he lost his father, who died at the age of fifty-two, when Sidney was eighteen. How far this bereavement changed the current of his life, the writer of this sketch does not know. But the year marked one of the most important milestones in his career. The discovery of gold in California and of the fertility of the prairies of Illinois and Iowa, followed by the extraordinary migration westward, attracted the attention and awakened the interest of well-nigh every young man in the older states. It was while young Kent was a student in the Institution that the lure of the West laid hold of him also with its resistless attraction and in 1853 drew him to Illinois. Whether Chicago was his objective from the start is uncertain, but an opportunity to teach a school led him at the outset to Kane County, about forty miles southwest of that city. There he remained for the greater part of a year, fullfilling his engagement as a teacher. His true vocation, however, was not teaching but business. He had innate gifts for success in commercial life. The fabulous opportunities in business presented by the rising young city so near at hand came to him with such a power of appeal that after a single year of teaching he made his permanent home in Chicago. He was without means, apparently, and, accepting the first thing that offered, he became a clerk in the dry goods house of Savage, Case & Company, where he remained for two years.

Mr. Kent's older brother, Albert E. Kent, who had the same inborn capacity for business, had also made his home in Chicago. Both were ambitious as well as capable, and in 1856 when Sidney was twenty-two years old they formed a partnership and struck out on their own account in the commission business. They dealt chiefly in furs, hides, and grain. Probably something had come to them from the settlement of their father's estate, for they are said to have engaged extensively in the fur trade, and Sidney made repeated journeys through the near and far West buying furs for the eastern market. There were few railroads at that time beyond the Mississippi and none at all beyond the Missouri, and these long journeys were difficult, wearisome, and not infrequently dangerous.

The Chicago of that day was a city of young men. Its business men were often, as in this case, hardly more than boys. Here was a youth

of twenty-two, one of the principal partners in a business that took him all over the West, as far as the Pacific, buying goods to be sold on the Atlantic. The courage and enterprise of the young business men of the Chicago of that day compel our wonder and admiration. Sidney A. Kent had both courage and enterprise in an extraordinary degree. He was ready to make great ventures when proportionate rewards were promised. Since entering business the two partners had studied the packing industry and, becoming assured that it might be made very profitable and gave promise of extraordinary development, they entered that business in a small way in 1854, packing and shipping as a first venture a thousand hogs. They formed the packing firm of A. E. Kent & Company and prospered greatly. Sidney was a natural speculator but by no means a reckless one. He had a keen speculative insight and a love for large operations. In the sixties he made a deal in pork which attracted much attention. Believing the country overstocked he sold a large amount of pork short. Other dealers believed he had made a mistake and would not be able to deliver what he had sold without heavy loss. But he persisted and carried the deal through to the end with entire success. The final outcome was that "he did not sell a barrel of pork on which he did not make a profit."

About 1872 the firm became incorporated as the Chicago Packing and Provision Company with Sidney A. Kent as president. He remained president of the corporation sixteen years. He was still a young man, being only thirty-eight at the beginning of this period.

His activities during these years were by no means restricted to the packing business. He was a member of the Board of Trade and dealt extensively in grain. One of the most notable transactions in which he was engaged was the great wheat deal which extended from January, 1880, to May, 1881. A number of men were interested, but Mr. Kent more largely than anyone else. From time to time very large sums of money were required. Mr Kent's resources were sometimes strained almost to the limit. It was no doubt during these strenuous months that he is said to have had his only falling-out with his trusted office man who made out and signed all his personal checks, even the checks for his daily private expenses. It is related that he entered his office one day and said to Mr. French, "Make me a check for $200,000," whereupon Mr. French began to remonstrate, saying, "Mr. Kent, I can't do it, it is impossible. You have only $100,000 in the bank." On this, Mr. Kent, usually quiet and gentle, turned upon him in a sudden fury and said, "What's that got to do with it? You can sign a check, can't you? You make the check and I will attend to the rest of it." Few deals of

this sort have been entirely successful on the Board of Trade. This one, however, proved a very great success. The profits are said to have approximated a million dollars, the largest share going to Mr. Kent.

Meantime his business connections had become very widely extended. He had been one of the incorporators in 1864–65 of the Chicago Union Stock Yards. Six times he was made a director of the Board of Trade, the first time in 1865, the last in 1883. Immediately after its organization he became associated with the Corn Exchange Bank. In 1871 he was made vice-president and later became president of the bank. For many years he was director of the Merchant's Loan Trust and Savings Bank. He was a director in the Kirby Carpenter Company with extensive interests in lumber, lands, and mills on the Menominee River, Michigan. He became a large holder of stock in the Chicago Traction Company. He was connected with the American Trust and Savings Bank. He was a director in the Sante Fe Railroad Company, in the West Chicago Street Railway, in the Union Iron Company, and in the Illinois Steel Company. One of the larger later enterprises in which he engaged was the consolidation of the various smaller gas companies of Chicago into the Peoples Gas Light and Coke Company. He was a director in the Northern Trust Company and in the Metropolitan Bank.

Mr. Kent remained at the head of the Chicago Packing and Provision Company until 1888. Finding his time and attention taken up with his many other interests, he then gave up the presidency and became vice-president of the company. His life had been one of extraordinary activity for the entire period since he entered business for himself, a period of thirty-two years. He was fifty-four years old, had accumulated a fortune, and began to think of retiring from active business.

While Mr. Kent was still president of the Chicago Packing and Provision Company there occurred one of the most interesting episodes in his life which reveals the man in a light so attractive and illuminating that this sketch would be quite incomplete without it. The story reveals his attitude toward his employees and toward the question of the eight-hour day which has been agitating the country ever since the incident occurred. It is told by George A. Schilling, a prominent labor leader of that day, who wrote as follows:

> In 1885 the Federal Trades of the United States convened in Chicago and resolved "that on and after May 1, 1886, eight hours shall constitute a day's work." Agitation for the inauguration of the eight-hour day began in the city in the early part of February, 1886. The movement gathered strength day by day and as the time for its introduction approached Chicago was ablaze for this demand.

In the latter part of April, 1886, I, in company with another delegate of the Chicago Trades Assembly, called upon Mr. Kent at his office and asked his aid in the introduction of the eight-hour day at the Union Stock Yards. . . . . He simply asked whether his men demanded it. I told him that I had every reason to believe that they wanted it. "Well," said he, in a modest way, "I will go down there tomorrow and inquire and send you word later." Next morning he appeared at the packing house and told his superintendent to call in the foreman of every department. When they came he said, "I am informed that our men desire an eight-hour day," and he asked that each foreman return to his department and have the men vote on the question. "Tell them," he said, "that I have the following proposition to make: I will either give them the present ten hours' pay for nine hours' work, or give them nine hours' pay for eight hours' work. Say to them that they need not fear to express themselves fully on the subject, as I have thought the matter over and have concluded to give the eight-hour day a trial."

The foremen returned and apprised the men of Mr. Kent's message, and, after due deliberation, they concluded to accept nine hours' pay for eight hours' work, but requested that the common laboring men, who were then receiving $1.75 per day, should not be reduced at all. This Mr. Kent gladly conceded and complimented his skilled workmen on the interest they felt in their poorer-paid fellows.

May 1, 1886, came on Saturday, and "Hutch House," as it was then called, blew its whistle at 8 o'clock in the morning. The men were so elated at this victory that they rechristened the building, and thereafter called it the "Kent House."

The action of Mr. Kent in conceding the eight-hour day had such remarkable influence that by Monday, May 3, the whole Union Stock Yards was out for its adoption, and every packer was compelled to grant it. But, instead of consenting to nine hours' pay for eight hours' work, the workmen of other houses demanded ten hours' pay for eight hours' work, and when Mr. Kent's attention was called to this he willingly followed suit. The eight-hour system was thereafter established throughout the Union Stock Yards for some 30,000 employés and remained intact until November of the same year.

Mr. Schilling goes on to say that Mr. Kent then went abroad for a prolonged absence, and that while he was away was waged "one of the most extraordinary contests in the annals of the labor movement of Chicago for the retention of the eight-hour day."

The workmen lost the battle for the time being. Mr. Kent retired from the presidency of the Chicago Packing and Provision Company. But he had won the lasting gratitude of the laboring men. They elected, in 1888, R. M. Burke to the state senate, and Mr. Schilling goes on with his story as follows:

In the year 1889 Senator Burke seized the opportunity to nominate Sidney A. Kent for the exalted office of United States Senator, and no one in Chicago was as much surprised as Mr. Kent himself on reading the papers the next morning. The following is the substance of the speech made by Senator Burke: "Mr. President and members of the Senate: I would place in nomination for the position of Senator of the grand state of Illinois one of the nation's true noblemen, a plain, practical man. He, as an employer of labor, does not think that the honest demands of labor should be

met with a policeman's club. Notwithstanding the fact that he is among Chicago's most wealthy citizens, he rises above his environment, and in summing up the whole industrial question, suggests a solution in the establishment of the eight-hour day law. It is not simply a theory with him, but two years ago he made a strenuous effort to inaugurate the same in the Union Stock Yards and did so for a time. When interviewed on the subject he said: 'The fact is that there are thousands of men continually out of work, who want a job and ought to have it, not only for their own well-being but for the safety of society, and if the reduction of the hours of labor to eight per day will give them an opportunity to earn an honest living, as I believe it will, no employer should oppose it. And if the men will only devote their spare time to education and improvement we will all be gainers in the end. The only thing to be feared is ignorance.'

"Mr. President and members of the Senate, I wish to say that you may think it strange that I, a representative of the laboring people, should nominate one of Chicago's millionaires. Let me say, however, in justification of my act, I do so, not because of his millions, but because his noble mind and heart shine through his wealth: because notwithstanding a successful business career such as few men can boast of, he manifests none of that ostentation, arrogance and tyranny that are characteristic of the dollar kind: a man of few words, plain and modest as a schoolgirl, with all the simplicity of a true American who never held or sought office. None will be more surprised at my action than he, and he may possibly call me to task for the liberty I have taken with his name, but as a representative of the laboring people, I would nominate the great eight-hour advocate, Sidney A. Kent of Cook County."

The late governor, R. J. Oglesby, in complimenting Senator Burke on his nominating speech, said it was the highest tribute he had ever heard paid to a rich man.

The members of the Board of Trade tried to have some amusement for a few days thereafter because he, a millionaire, was the candidate of the Labor Party for the United States Senatorship. To all these good-natured jests he replied that he was proud of the honor, especially as he had received the full party vote (that of Mr. Burke) without having sought it.

Mr. Kent always regretted the loss of the eight-hour day in the Union Stock Yards. He believed that employers generally should have been more friendly toward it. He said that the question whether the eight-hour work day would be a benefit to the workman and to the public at large would be solely determined by the use made of the leisure time. If it resulted in a broader intelligence, society at large would be the gainer: the workman's powers of consumption would be enlarged and the condition of our home market improved.

If all the work people felt as I do, we would collect a limited sum, erect a modest stone over his grave and inscribe thereon:

Here lies Sidney A. Kent, the millionaire packer of Chicago, who, in 1886, championed and conceded the eight-hour day to his employes. He believed its universal adoption would result in a broader intelligence and a higher standard of life for the masses and insure the more general progress of society.

I have quoted thus freely from Mr. Schilling because such tributes from workingmen to men of large wealth are well-nigh unknown. It was written after Mr. Kent's death and more than twelve years after the first great battle for the eight-hour day. The writer of it spoke out of a grateful heart and voiced the feelings of the workingmen. It is, there-

SIDNEY A. KENT
Memorial Tablet in Kent Laboratory
by Lorado Taft

fore, a tribute most eloquent and significant. It throws a wholly new light on the character of this modest millionaire, whose heart was wide open to the demands of his employees, who entered into the completest sympathy with them, who believed in and sought co-operation instead of conflict with them, and who, a full generation in advance of the great mass of employers, recognized the propriety, necessity, and justice of a shorter working day. The reduction of the ten-hour day to eight hours with undiminished pay was felt by employers to be revolutionary. They fought against it, for the most part, with great bitterness. When the issue was presented to Mr. Kent, however, he only asked whether his employees demanded it, and on being assured that they desired it said that he would confer with them. This he immediately did, encouraging them to express themselves freely. He submitted to them his proposals, and when they came back with an amendment in favor of unskilled labor he promptly accepted it. In other words, he treated them as though he recognized them as partners in a great co-operative business in which, so far as hours, wages, and general working conditions were concerned, they had a clear right to be heard. This was a very long step to be taken a full generation ago in the democratization of industry, of which in this later day we hear so much.

This intelligent and sympathetic attitude toward men who worked with their hands presents Mr. Kent in a very attractive light. He had himself started life as a poor man and he never lost his understanding of, and sense of comradeship with, men who worked for a living. Mr. Schilling says, "The humblest workman in his employ could approach him with ease and unconcern." He was not only without any of the arrogance of wealth, but he felt and manifested a living sympathy with workingmen. He thus commanded their confidence and good-will. Employer and employees met each other halfway. And thus simply they discovered the basis of all industrial peace and prosperity—co-operation inspired by mutual understanding and sympathy and a purpose on both sides to deal fairly and justly.

Mr. Kent remained unmarried until he was thirty years old. At that age he was already a successful business man. It was on September 25, 1864, that he married Stella A. Lincoln, of Newark Valley, New York. Mrs. Kent was the daughter of Congressman W. S. Lincoln. For a number of years they lived on Park Avenue. Later they made their home on Michigan Avenue, after 1884 at 2944 Michigan Avenue.

It is said that in one of his large speculative deals, when he was extending himself to the limit and putting up every available dollar, Mr. Kent sold one Michigan Avenue residence at a great sacrifice for

$90,000, being confident that the final outcome would make up his loss many times over.

The children of Mr. and Mrs. Kent were two daughters, Helen L. and Stella A. Kent. The former married Andre Massenat, and the latter A. K. Legare. Mr. and Mrs. Massenat later made their home on Pequest Farm, Bridgeville, New Jersey, and Mr. and Mrs. Legare in Washington, D.C. Sidney Kent Legare conducts the ancestral farm in Suffield, which has been developed into a splendid country estate with multiplied attractions.

Mr. Kent was a good deal of a traveler. He made three trips abroad; but most of his journeys were made in this country, and these carried him all over the Union. He used to say, with much satisfaction, that he had visited every state and every territory in his own country, not excepting Alaska. Many of his earlier journeys were made in the prosecution of his business, but later he traveled for pleasure, evidently making it an object to visit every section of his own country.

Mr. Kent continued in business until 1892 or 1893, retiring, before he was sixty, with an ample fortune. Forty years had passed since he had left the place where he was born and bred; but his love for it continued. Suffield had been the home of the Kents for two hundred years or more. Mr. Kent loved it. He had never lost touch with it. His remembrances of his boyhood and youth must have been delightful, for they drew him back to Suffield to spend the evening of life where its morning had been so happily passed. His father's farm, which had been in the family a hundred and fifty years or more, had come into his hands. From time to time he added to it till it contained two hundred and six acres. He seems to have had a reverent regard and love for the house of his fathers in which he was born. This ancient "house he built over, retaining all possible of the original," in the words of an old Suffield friend. And another adds that it is "a spacious, attractive, and completely furnished house." Here he spent much of his time during the last seven or eight years of his life. In 1899 he made his last trip abroad. His health was failing and for it he visited Carlsbad. Returning home the following spring, he was prostrated by an attack of influenza. This followed by other complications and he died April 1, 1900, at his Suffield home. Mrs. Kent survived him and continued to make her home in Suffield during the rest of her life. She died in 1913, and the old home of the family descended to Mrs. Legare, her daughter.

For nearly forty years, the period covering his business activity, Mr. Kent had lived a busy life, always full of interest and often of great

and prolonged nervous strain. He had conducted large business enterprises with conspicuous success. After his death Murry Nelson, a well-known business man of Chicago, said that P. D. Armour once declared that "he considered Mr. Kent the shrewdest man in the packing fraternity." It was said of him that "he enjoyed throughout his business career in Chicago a unique reputation—that of a man who made fortunes by his brains, by shrewd speculation for the most part, his deals being marked by almost invariable success." It was this element in his career, the speculative, that filled it, first of all, with interest, then with a variety of sensations, hope, fear, anxiety, confidence, panic, assurance, disappointment, exultation, and that, with these alternating sensations, brought mental and physical strain. Mr. Kent always acted on his own judgment, quite independently of the opinions of others. The weight of opinion on the Board of Trade was often opposed to his view, "but generally he was right and the majority wrong." And "always," it was said, "he was reserved, silent regarding contemplated transactions, unostentatious in the conduct of his business and modest in his successes."

Mr. Kent was a member of various Chicago clubs. Of these the Washington Park Club, which maintained a racing course south of Washington Park, and the Calumet Club, which was the club of the old settlers, have ceased to exist. The Union League remains the great club of the city.

Mr. Kent was a quiet man. He talked little. There was nothing self-assertive in his manner. He was essentially modest and his bearing was the farthest removed from the arrogance of wealth. It has been said of him that his four chief characteristics were "his love of home, reticence, great persistency, and indomitable energy." But this description of him is most imperfect and incomplete. It cannot be doubted that he possessed business abilities of a very high order. And his business capacities were of two differing, almost contradictory, kinds. He organized and conducted great, conservative enterprises in the line of ordinary business—what might be termed legitimate business, such as his commission house, packing companies, banks—with prudence, skill, and success.

But he was equally at home in the field of speculation. He was not a reckless plunger. But, having looked over the situation and decided what the probabilities were, he was not afraid to take chances, sometimes risking great sums when the prize to be won was big enough. Once convinced that a venture would succeed and deciding to enter on it, no amount of adverse opinion could dissuade him from making it. He did

not invariably succeed. But he so generally succeeded, and particularly in his greatest speculative deals, as to give him his reputation as the shrewdest trader of his day and to add largely to his wealth.

It is said of Mr. Kent that he had determined, early in his career, to become rich. It was, perhaps, this purpose that led him into those great ventures that made him known, not only as an ordinary business man, but as an extraordinary speculator. The interesting and rather remarkable fact is that he was equally successful in both these lines of activity.

Mr. Kent's purpose to accumulate large wealth, as wealth was reckoned before our day of enormous fortunes, did not prevent him from being a man of unusual liberality. It has been said of him: "The list of Mr. Kent's public benefactions would be too long to recount. There was hardly a charity in Chicago to which he did not subscribe and no one can ever know the approximate of what he modestly gave to relieve private want." He was particularly interested in the needs of his native town. To its Literary Institution, now known as Suffield School, he made contributions, as did Mrs. Kent after his death. His great contribution to Suffield, however, was the Kent Memorial Library. For the erection of the building, the purchase of books, and the endowment of the library he provided nearly or quite $100,000.

But the greatest of his contributions was made to the University of Chicago. The University was being founded while Mr. Kent was preparing to retire from active business and make Suffield his place of residence. This makes it the more surprising that he should have conceived so liberal an interest in this new Chicago enterprise. The writer of this sketch well recalls the day in the spring of 1890 when Mr. Kent made his first subscription to the University of Chicago. In connection with Mr. F. T. Gates I was soliciting funds for the founding of the University. We were trying to complete a million-dollar conditional subscription. We had reached the last hundred thousand dollars, but subscriptions were coming very slowly and we were in a state of great discouragement. It was at just this time that we called on Mr. Kent in his LaSalle Street office. He knew neither of us, but received us cordially, listened to our plea, and immediately said: "I am interested in what you are doing and will give you two thousand five hundred dollars." We had received larger subscriptions than this, but it was given so quickly and freely, and at a time when we so much needed encouragement that my associate was quite overcome and was more extravagant in his expressions of appreciation than in receiving any other promise of help during that strenuous year. When Mr. Kent, instead of putting us

off and asking us to come in again later, said at once, "I will help you." Mr. Gates's surprise and relief were so great that he exclaimed impulsively: "Mr. Kent, for this encouragement I could almost fall down and worship you." Perhaps it was the very extravagance of our gratitude that contributed, a little later, to the interest he began to manifest in the development of the University.

More than six months before the new institution opened its doors to students Mr. Kent informed the trustees that he had "decided to erect and furnish a building to be located on the University grounds and to be known as the Kent Chemical Hall." He wished to give the University not a sum of money, but a building. His purpose was to build a laboratory and present it completed, fully furnished, and perfectly equipped. This he did. The plans were laid before him for approval. The details connected with the work of construction were submitted to him. He paid the bills as they came in, authorizing and approving all expenditures. The laboratory was dedicated in connection with the Fifth Convocation, January 1, 1894, the service being held in the Kent Theater, the auditorium of the building. A letter was read from Mr. Kent in which he said: "I hereby give this building, fully furnished and completely equipped, to the University of Chicago as a chemical laboratory, for the use of this and succeeding generations." In receiving the building President Harper said of the growth and development of Mr. Kent's idea:

> At first $100,000 had been considered a sum sufficient for the purpose. Before a definite conclusion had been reached the sum was fixed at $150,000. When the contracts were made for the erection of the building the sum designated was $182,000. When the bills came to be paid, including furnishings, the sum was $215,000, and to this Mr. Kent generously added $20,000 for equipment, making in all $235,000.

At the Convocation proper the President again spoke of the new laboratory, and of the indebtedness of the University and of chemical science to its builder. Mr. Kent was present and at the close of the President's quarterly statement sent to Dr. Harper the following note which was read to the audience:

> If in any small measure the work of my life can contribute to the advancement of knowledge and the greater happiness of men; if this can be done in the city where my busy days have been spent and where my heart is; and if, as I believe, we, who have aided in the work of erecting this great University, have helped to lay the foundations of what can never be destroyed, I feel in this work a pride and happiness that have never been equalled in my life.

It is interesting to recall that Mr. Kent's older brother and former associate in business, Albert E. Kent, had before this date presented a

chemical laboratory to Yale, and that his example may have moved the younger brother in making a like contribution to the new University of Chicago and even inspired him to outdo the other's generosity.

On the wall of the entrance to the Kent Chemical Laboratory is a bronze tablet in the center of which is a bust of Mr. Kent in bas-relief with the following inscription below:

> THIS BUILDING IS DEDICATED TO A FUNDAMENTAL SCIENCE, IN THE HOPE THAT IT WILL BE A FOUNDATION STONE LAID BROAD AND DEEP FOR THE TEMPLE OF KNOWLEDGE IN WHICH AS WE LIVE WE HAVE LIFE.
>
> SIDNEY A. KENT

The Laboratory is a three-story and basement building about one hundred and eighty feet in length, with an addition in the rear, known as the Kent Theater. It fronts south on the central quadrangle of the original University group. It is a commodious and attractive structure of blue Bedford stone, like the other buildings of the University of English Gothic architecture, and built to endure for centuries.

The buildings of the University have been much admired. Their attractiveness is, without doubt, very largely due to the munificence of Mr. Kent in the construction of the Chemical Laboratory. He set the example which later contributors of buildings have followed. President Harper in the address accepting the building said:

> Everything was planned, and it was necessary to plan it upon a large scale. Mr. Kent would not in any case consent to the use of material that was not of the best. . . . . In all this the standard was fixed for the other laboratories of the University. Had the Chemical Laboratory cost $100,000, the Physical Laboratory likewise would have cost $100,000. The Chemical Laboratory, however, cost $235,000, and so the Physical Laboratory when finished will cost its donor $230,000. With such provision for the Departments of Physics and Chemistry, it followed naturally that Astronomy, when the matter was taken up, should be treated in a manner equally magnificent.

Kent and Ryerson were the first of the University's laboratories and they set a standard which could not be lowered.

It must be remembered that this was at the very beginning of things. The only buildings under way were the divinity dormitories and the classroom building which came to be called Cobb Lecture Hall. There was no money for any others. The University was absolutely dependent for the character of its future buildings, whether, indeed, it was to have other buildings of any sort, on the generosity of donors. Had it

been impossible to find givers who would put more than $50,000 into a building for an institution whose future was then quite uncertain, buildings costing that amount only must have been constructed. The standard established by these first builders would have been for many years the accepted standard. When, therefore, Mr. Kent put nearly a quarter of a million dollars into the first scientific laboratory he redeemed the architectural future of the University from meanness and insignificance and gave it permanently that commodiousness, richness, impressiveness, and beauty which have given it distinction throughout the educational world. It may be said with truth that the universities of the whole country are indebted to Mr. Kent. It has been said that Kent was the first of the great laboratories of our country devoted entirely to chemistry. Like the Ryerson Physical Laboratory, built at almost the same time, it was the envy and despair of other universities. But with these fine buildings to stimulate them to effort, they, too, found generous friends, and the era of great scientific laboratories began. That era may fairly be said to have been introduced by Sidney A. Kent and Martin A. Ryerson.

The Fifth Convocation of the University, held January 2, 1894, fifteen months after the opening of the institution, centered about the dedication of Kent Laboratory. Professor, later President, Remsen had a year before been brought from Johns Hopkins to assist the architect in planning an ideal laboratory. He now returned to Chicago as Convocation orator to dedicate the building into which he had put his best thought, taking for his theme "The Chemical Laboratory." The occasion was made memorable by a conference of the teachers of chemistry representing forty-one institutions, which resulted in the organization of an annual conference for the discussion of methods of chemical instruction.

When the Laboratory was built it was more than ample for the students of the new institution. As has been indicated, it was a large building, but twenty-five years have passed since its erection, the annual attendance of students in the University has increased more than tenfold, from less than 1,000 to more than 10,000, and the Laboratory no longer accommodates the great and growing multitude. It was built to provide for 300 students, but by subsequent changes its capacity has been increased so as to give adequate facilities for the care of 500 students. The registration during the last five years has much exceeded that number, resulting in most serious overcrowding. It became necessary in the Autumn Quarter of 1919 to restrict the number of

registrations to 750, which is 250 more than the building can adequately accommodate.

Professor Julius Stieglitz, Chairman of the Department of Chemistry and Director of Laboratories, writes me:

> In the course of years this beautiful laboratory has become quite inadequate in size, both for the housing of vital branches of instruction in chemistry and for the care of the vast number of students attracted to chemistry by the recognition of its extraordinary importance in so many varied branches of science and to the life of the nation. . . . . Since the planning and building of the Kent Chemical Laboratory, two great new fields of chemistry, physical chemistry and the chemistry of radio-active substances, have been developed and have taken a place in chemistry as fundamental as the three branches, inorganic, organic, and analytical chemistry, for work in which the Laboratory was planned and constructed. . . . . The most serious feature of the overcrowded conditions in Kent is that the development of its *research* facilities has been very seriously impaired and its usefulness . . . . jeopardized. There are not enough private research laboratories even for all the members of the enlarged staff [which is five times as great as it was at the beginning], and the 30 to 35 students engaged in research for the Ph.D. degree are crowded either into an already overcrowded large laboratory, or into rough basement rooms which were never designed for research work and which are poorly lighted and poorly ventilated.

The department is pleading therefore for largely increased facilities for its important and growing work, either in an enlargement of Kent, or "a new laboratory which will give adequate space and facilities for the crowded research workers, for the proper housing of physical chemistry and of radio-activity work—and, if it is large enough, possibly for graduate work in industrial chemistry—but that is another story."

All this is said to emphasize the importance of the great contribution Mr. Kent made to the University at the very beginning of its history. Well did he say in the inscription on the tablet of dedication in the entrance of the Laboratory, "This Building is Dedicated to a Fundamental Science." So fundamental is it that the saying is current that chemistry won the Great War. Mr. Kent builded even better than he knew. Since his day, though that day closed so recently, chemistry has made for itself a new and vastly greater place in the world's life. He helped to introduce the new era. In doing this he made a great contribution, not only and not chiefly to the University of Chicago, but to mankind. He believed he was making adequate provision for the study and teaching of chemistry in the University for generations to come. If he were still living, no one would rejoice more than he that the greatness of his contribution aided in that extraordinary development in the scope of chemistry and its value to the world which, before a single

generation passed, overcrowded Kent Laboratory with eager students and made its extension or duplication imperative.

Mr. Kent's interest in the University and in the great building he had given it continued unchanged. The writer of this sketch recalls a day in 1897 when he and President Harper, entering the Corn Exchange Bank, met Mr. Kent coming out. He stopped us and said: "I am glad to meet you, for I have something to tell you which will interest you both. I am just making my will and am leaving the University $100,000 for the care of the Laboratory." He died three years later, leaving a very large estate. It turned out that before finally executing his will the bequest to the University was made $50,000. A similar amount was left to the Art Institute of Chicago. The bulk of the estate was left to Mrs. Kent and his two daughters. The will provided that, in the event of certain contingencies, a very large sum should go to the University as an endowment for scholarships. But the Kent stock maintains its virility, and his fortunes goes, as he intended it should, to his children's children. This contingent provision is mentioned here to show the continuance of his interest in the institution for which he had done so much, and his benevolent thought of the coming generations of the young people of our country.

In concluding this sketch I cannot refrain from quoting two very pregnant sentences from the pen of the Honorable William Kent, late member of Congress from California, the son of Mr. Kent's older brother, Albert E. Kent.

> Sidney A. Kent was a man of remarkable business judgment and ability, and was characterized by a great gift of human kindliness. He showed quickness and aptitude in every one of the many lines of business he took up, and had the warm affection of many people in all walks of life.

What has impressed me in these two sentences is this—neither of them could close without referring to Mr. Kent's human kindliness and power to inspire affection in people "in all the walks of life." He was a very able business man, but, after all, the things that gave the greatest value and significance to his life were the human interest he felt and manifested in his fellow-men who worked with their hands, his thought for the welfare of the young in his eastern and western homes, and his munificent gifts for their education and advancement.

EVENTS: PAST AND FUTURE

THE ONE HUNDRED AND TWELFTH CONVOCATION

The One Hundred and Twelfth Convocation was held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, Friday, August 29, at 4:30 P.M. The Convocation Address, "The Peace Conference in the Light of History," was delivered by William Ezra Lingelbach, Ph.D., Professor of Modern European History, University of Pennsylvania.

The award of honors was announced: Valeska Pfeiffer, the Lillian Gertrude Selz Scholarship. The election of the following students to the Chicago Chapter of the Order of the Coif was announced: Isabelle Randall Bridge, Stanley Hart Udy. The election of the following students to the Beta of Illinois Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa was announced: Dorothy Ellen Erskine, Simon Herman Herzfeld, Edna Richardson Meyers, Mary Emma Quayle, Charles Garrett Vannest, John James Willaman.

Honorable mention for excellence in the work of the Junior Colleges: Arthur Anderson, Rena Mazyck Andrews, Homer Paul Balabanis, Merrick Roblee Breck, Harold Lewis Hanisch, Harald Groth Oxhom Holck, Frederick Tracy May, Jr., Robert Latour Muckley, Bertha Beatrice Needham, Mary Agatha Scott, Agnes Warren Simon, Enid Townley, Jacob Allan Weiss. Honorable mention for excellence in the work leading to the Certificate of the College of Education: Grace Breckenridge. The Bachelor's degree was conferred with honors on the following students: Dorothy Marian Ashland, Lucretia Jane Belting, Eva A. Bernstein, Judge Boggs, Elsie May Creed, Martha Dorothy Fink, Beatrice Jane Geiger, Simon Herman Herzfeld, Frances Bernice Hessler, Mary Ellen Icke, Paul Grenville Jeans, Letha Margaret Lowen, Edith Leanna McEachron, Lucy Whitney Markley, Edna Richardson Meyers, Alta Nelson, Julia Christina Nelson, Wendell Abel Potter, Mary Emma Quayle, William Herbert Radebaugh, Besse Eugenia Rice, Mary Evangeline Robb, Emily Taft, Charles Garrett Vannest, Lillian Frona Wester, Charles Corbin Yancey. Honors for excellence in particular departments of the Senior Colleges were awarded to the following students: Dorothy Marian Ashland, Bacteriology; Eva A. Bernstein, English; Judge Boggs, Education; Martha Dorothy Fink, Education; Orlin Denton Frank, Botany; Beatrice Jane Geiger, Chemistry; Simon Herman Herzfeld, Chemistry; Mary Ellen Icke, Education; Paul Grenville Jeans, English; Alta Nelson, Home Economics; Julia Christina Nelson, General Literature; LeRoy Nielsen, History; Dorothy Elizabeth Perham, History; Mary Emma Quayle, English; Besse Eugenia Rice, English; Mary Evangeline Robb, Geography and Geology; Margaret Elizabeth Rourke, English; Margaret Elizabeth Smith, Home Economics; Emily Taft, French; Charles Garrett Vannest, History and Political Science; Charles Garrett Vannest, Education; Tsu Lien Wang, Education; Lillian Frona Wester, Romance; Charles Corbin Yancey, Anatomy and Physiology.

Degrees and titles were conferred as follows: *The Colleges:* the certificate of the College of Education, 5; the degree of Bachelor of Arts, 2; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy, 53; the degree of Bachelor of Science, 31; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy in Education, 40; the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education, 2; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy in Commerce and Administration, 3; *The Divinity School:* the degree of Master of Arts, 10; the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 2; *The Law School:* The degree of Doctor of Law, 6; *The Graduate Schools of Arts, Literature, and Science:* the degree of Master of Arts, 45; the degree of Master of Science, 19; the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 28. The total number of degrees conferred was 234.

The Convocation Prayer Service was held at 10:30 A.M. Sunday, August 24, in the Harper Assembly Room. At

11:00 A.M., in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, the Convocation Religious Service was held. The preacher was the Reverend Lewis Beals Fisher, D.D., LL.D., Dean of the Ryder Divinity School.

RECENT ADDITIONS TO THE FIFTEENTH-CENTURY BOOKS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO LIBRARIES

In the *University Record* for July, 1919, pages 294–98, there appeared a list of one hundred and seven incunabula in the possession of the University of Chicago Libraries. Since that list was printed several additional items have been received, due, chiefly, to the generosity of Dr. F. W. Gunsaulus, who has presented the following:

1. A small volume in modern board binding lettered: *Politiani Sylvae sex.* It contains six of the smaller works of Angelus Politianus, viz.:

1. *Sylva cui titulus Ambra*, printed at Florence *ca.* 1485, apparently the work described in Hain's *Repertorium*, number 13,230. No copy listed in the *Census of Fifteenth-Century Books in America.*

2. *Sylva cui titulus Rusticus*, printed at Florence by Miscominus, February 7, 1491. Described in Hain's *Repertorium* and Copinger's *Supplement*, number 13,234, Proctor, number 6,154. No copy in the *Census*.

3. *Sylva cui titulus Manto*, printed at Bologna by Franciscus [Plato] de Benedictus, June 9, 1492.

[Note: The imprint agrees in part only with that given in Hain's *Repertorium*, number 13,129, of which work there is supposed to be a copy at Wellesley College.]

4. *Sylva cui titulus Nutricia*, printed at Florence by Miscominus, June 7, 1491. Agrees with the copy described in Hain's *Repertorium*, number 13,236. According to the *Census* there is a copy at Harvard College Library.

5. *Lamia*, printed at Florence by Miscominus, December 18, 1492. In Hain's *Repertorium*, number 13,222. No copy listed in the *Census*.

6. *Panepistaemon*, printed at Florence by Miscominus, March 10, 1491. In Hain's *Repertorium*, number 13,225. The *Census* notes one copy in the Harvard College Library.

[Note: The dates of printing given above are according to the old style.]

II. Michael de Carchano (or as he was more commonly called Michaelis de Mediolano). *Quadragesimale, seu Sermonarum duplicatum*, printed at Venice by Nicolaus of Frankfort, 1487. Described in Hain's *Repertorium* and Copinger's *Supplement*, number 4,506. There are four other copies noted in the *Census*. As far as I know this is the first specimen from the press of Nicolaus of Frankfort in the University Libraries.

III. Avicenna. *Liber Canonis*, printed at Venice by Pierre Mauser, 1486. Described in Hain's *Repertorium* and Copinger's *Supplement*, number 2,205, Proctor 4,602. There are six copies noted in the *Census*. The University Libraries have another edition of this work dated 1500.

In a collection of books from the library of the late Dr. Mortimer Frank, of Chicago, purchased by the University Libraries in June, 1919, there have been found two books antedating 1500, viz.:

1. Guido de Chauliac. *Chirurgia*, printed at Venice by Bonetus Locatellus in 1500. In Hain's *Repertorium* and Copinger's *Supplement*, number 4,813. Only one other copy in America according to the *Census*.

2. Jacobus de Forlivio. *Expositiones in primum librum Canonis Avicennae*, printed at Pavia by Christophorus de Canibus and Stephanus de Georgiis, probably in 1483 or 1484. Described in Hain's *Repertorium*, number 7,241. No other copy in America according to the *Census*.

GIFTS TO CARDINAL MERCIER

The books presented to Cardinal Mercier for the University of Louvain are described as follows:

BALBUS DE JANUA (JOANNES DE) *Catholicon.*

Large folio, lit. goth. double columns, 65–67 lines, 37211, without marks, rubricated, painted red capitals, thick boarded brown morocco, covered with blind stamped antique ornaments, joints, g.e., by Riviere. FINE copy; from the Lakelands and Morris libraries, with the latter's printed Kelmscott House label. Absque ulla nota (Argentinae, "R" Printer).

The extremely rare first edition from the press of the printer who used the

peculiarly formed capital "R" so well known to students of fifteenth-century typography. By Hain and other bibliographers, books containing this peculiar letter were attributed to the press of Mentelin, but it is now generally allowed that it cannot with any certainty be said who was the printer of them.

EUCLID. *Praeclarissimus liber elementorum Euclidis perspicacissimi in artem Geometrie.* Colophon: . . . . Erhardus Ratdolt Augustensis impressor solertissimus. Venetiis impressit. Anno salutis. M. cccc. lxxxij. Octauis Calen. Iun.

Small folio, Gothic letter, 137 leaves of text printed in two sizes of type, with arabesque woodcut initials (white on black); on the first leaf of text a beautiful woodcut of similar kind; and the margins of the volume filled with geometrical figures. Vellum binding, gilt tooled. *Editio princeps* of a world-renowned book and typographically one of the marvels of early printing. For two hundred years bibliographers have vied with each other in commendation of it. Save for a few manuscript notes in a sixteenth-century hand, this copy is as clean and brilliant a one as any collector is ever likely to secure. Its broad margins, black ink, exquisitely engraved initials, and clearly cut diagrams are a revelation of typographical beauty and masterly craftsmanship. Ratdolt was one of the very first printers to introduce wood engravings in his books, and his borders and initials, says A. W. Pollard, "have never been surpassed." G. R. Redgrave in his authoritative monograph on Ratdolt thus refers to the *Euclid:*

"In the course of the year 1482, Ratdolt issued several of his most remarkable productions; among them the foremost place is due to the *Euclid* with its beautiful border and admirable diagrams. It constitutes the first attempt to illustrate the text of this great author with woodcuts of the problems, and it must ever be memorable for the skill and enterprise it displays in the accomplishment of what must at that time have been a most difficult task. The illustrations consist of admirably engraved woodcuts of great delicacy and intricacy. The entire work comprises 138 leaves, the last blank, and there are in all upwards of 420 wood engravings, excluding about 200 which may be formed from lead lines."

The dedication of the work, which is to the Doge, John Mocenico, is often wanting, as it is contained on a preliminary leaf but is present in this copy in perfect state. In this dedication Ratdolt professes his wonder that amid the great quantity of new and old volumes which were daily being published in the Doge's fortunate and prepotent city, so little had been done for the study of mathematics, but supposes that it arose from the difficulty of printing the necessary diagrams with the text.

LA MAISON FRANAÇISE

A French House at the University of Chicago has been assured, through the generosity of citizens of Chicago, including a group of Bohemians and a group of Polish citizens who desire to express in this way their admiration for France. La Maison Française owes its conception to the conviction that in the years to come the teaching of French will assume more and more importance in the secondary schools and colleges in the country. More and better-prepared instructors will be needed. Thus far higher institutions of learning have been content with giving students specializing in French a knowledge of the language and literature of France.

A large and varied experience with the preparation of teachers of French has convinced the staff of the Department of Romance Languages of the University of Chicago that this purely linguistic and literary training was far from sufficient. Although students generally completed their knowledge by a trip abroad, for practical purposes, they were not equipped at the start to get the full benefit of their study in France. Moreover, all could not afford this privilege.

To meet the needs and wishes of French scholars along the line of general improvement, the professors of Romance Languages at the University of Chicago have come to the conclusion that, in addition to academic instruction, students must be given a practical knowledge of the social, aesthetic, political, and ethnic features of the French.

To bring this about La Maison Française has been organized. Already Columbia and Wisconsin have such an institution. The usefulness of La Maison Française at Columbia has been clearly

proved. Moreover, frequently prospective students ask for just such an organization where it will be possible to hear and speak French outside of the classroom. La Maison Française will be such a place. French exclusively will be spoken.

The House will be a dormitory for women, for most of the specializing students in French are women. As in the other women's halls, the residents will dine at a common table, which in this case will have a French menu as far as it is compatible with American taste and the income of the House.

In addition to this feature, the House will be a kind of club, a meeting place for the "Cercle français" of the University and other French societies as may arise from time to time. It will have a reading-room open to all students, men and women, at fixed hours.

It will have a special library of French papers, periodicals, and books dealing mainly with non-academic subjects, such as travel in France and French-speaking countries, sports, fashion, arts, society, commerce and industry, the stage and dramatic literature, manners and customs, etc.

There will be also a small museum of photographs, lantern slides, pictures, illustrated papers, and books for the purpose of bringing France to the patrons of the House. There will be short talks, recitations and readings, dramatic performances and musicals, conversation circles. All entertainment will be under the direct supervision of the "Directrice," who will be the head of the House. She will live in the House, preside at the table, supervise all activities, engage and direct the servants. The Directrice will be assisted by a committee appointed by the Head of the Department of Romance Languages.

The House is located at 5810 Woodlawn Avenue in a building belonging to the University of Chicago. The House was organized at the beginning of the Summer Quarter, 1919. Provision is made for the support of the House during the first three years. It is expected that it will be so successful that permanent provision for an even larger House will be made.

GENERAL ITEMS

Friends of Professor George Burman Foster will be glad to have these indications of his continuing influence. Llewellyn Jones, editor of the Literary Review of the *Chicago Evening Post*, has prepared a lecture on "The Personality and Work of George Burman Foster," which is already in demand. The University of Chicago Press has printed a bibliography for use in study-classes devoted to Mr. Foster's *Function of Religion*.

The bibliography was prepared by Eustace Haydon, Ph.D., now teaching in Mr. Foster's department.

The Arcadia Book Company has asked for short manuscripts of Mr. Foster's, which they wish to syndicate, and afterward publish in book form. Professor George Herbert Clarke, head of the English department of the University of Tennessee, is editing the Nietzsche lectures, delivered at the University of Chicago in the summer of 1917, entitled, "The Soul of Friedrich Nietzsche." Professor Douglas Clyde Macintosh, Ph.D., of Yale University, is editing a technical book, compiled from his notes on Mr. Foster's courses on "The Ethics of the Christian Religion" and on "The Dogmatics of the Christian Religion," entitled *Christianity in Its Modern Expression*. In response to many requests, Mrs. Foster will edit a volume of sermons as soon as possible.

In view of the foregoing, Mrs. Foster, who took his ashes to West Virginia for burial, will put upon his tombstone the words, "Who, being dead, yet speaketh."

As a former president of the American Oriental Society, Director James Henry Breasted, of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, recently represented America at a joint session of the Royal Asiatic Society, the Société Asiatique, the American Oriental Society, and the Oriental School of the Royal University of Rome. After some weeks in London and Paris, Director Breasted sailed October 22 from Venice for Alexandria, and is now in Egypt.

Messrs. Ludlow S. Bull, W. F. Edgerton, and W. A. Shelton, former graduate students in the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures at Chicago, are expected to join Professor Breasted in Cairo. Associate Professor David D. Luckenbill, who has just been granted leave of absence by the University Board of Trustees, will sail about the first of January to join the party, which will then proceed to the Tigro-Euphrates Valley. The return to

America will be made by October, 1920. Under the extremely unsettled conditions still prevailing abroad, the expedition is rendered possible only by the most friendly co-operation on the part of the British authorities.

The funds for this survey of the archaeological situation in the Near East have been generously furnished by Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., and other friends of the University.

Two foreign professors of note lectured at the University of Chicago on November 19, 20, and 21. One is Professor Vito Volterra, of Rome, and the other, Abbé Ernst Dinmet, of Paris. Professor Volterra, who is professor of mathematics and physics in the University of Rome and during the war was director of the National Research Council of Italy, spoke in French, November 19, on "The Organization of Science during and after the War." On November 20 he spoke in Italian to the Romance Club on "Carducci," and on November 21 to the Physics and Medical clubs on a technical subject. Professor Dinmet, who is in this country to interest friends of education in the University of Lille, lectured November 20 on "Some Aspects of the Brontë Sisters," of whose lives and works he has written an authoritative appreciation. This lecture was given on the William Vaughn Moody Foundation.

Professor George de Bothezat, of the Polytechnic Institute of Petrograd, Russia, gave three lectures at the University of Chicago on November 19, 20, and 21 under the auspices of the Department of Physics. The first lecture was on "The Fundamental Principles of Dynamics," the second on "The Fundamental Principles of Hydrodynamics," and the last on "The Actual Question of the Present State of the Theory of Fluid Resistance."

Professor de Bothezat, who is director of the aeronautical laboratory at the Polytechnic Institute in Petrograd, was the chief builder of the aeronautic institute in Odessa and during the war was a scientific expert in the Russian war department. For more than a year he has been in Washington, D.C., as the scientific expert of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics of the United States government.

The latest appointment to the Faculty of the University of Chicago Law School is that of Dr. Clay Judson to an instructorship in personal property and mortgages. Dr. Judson, who received his J.D. degree from the Law School in 1917 *cum laude* and his A.B. degree from Harvard in 1914, is the son of Brigadier General William V. Judson, of the United States Engineers, who is in charge of river and harbor improvements in Chicago and vicinity.

Announcement is just made at the University of Chicago that the new *Alumni Directory* to be published under the auspices of the Alumni Council will contain approximately 11,000 names. This is an increase of more than 4,000 names over the list published in the last directory, issued six years ago. The material for the new directory, including all the changes brought about by the war, is practically ready for the printer, and the volume, of eight hundred pages, will appear about the first of the year.

Professor Gordon J. Laing, of the Department of the Latin Language and Literature at the University of Chicago, has been made Chairman of the Department, to succeed Professor William Gardner Hale, who retired this year. Professor Laing, who has been connected with the Department of Latin for twenty years, is president of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, which has vice-presidents from thirty states and a membership of about two thousand. He is also vice-president of the Archaeological Institute of America, as well as associate editor of *Classical Philology* and general editor of the University of Chicago Press. In 1911–12 Mr. Laing was the Annual Professor at the American School of Classical Studies in Rome.

At the recent annual conference of the Association of American Universities held at the Ohio State University in Columbus, Professor James R. Angell, Dean of the Faculties at the University of Chicago and Chairman of the National Research Council, presented a paper on behalf of the University, his subject being "The Organization of Research." President Harry Pratt Judson discussed the paper by President Ray Lyman Wilbur, of Leland Stanford Junior Uni-

versity, on "Remunerative Extra-University Activities." Others in attendance from the University of Chicago included Dean Albion W. Small, Dean Rollin D. Salisbury, Professor Julius Stieglitz, Chairman of the Department of Chemistry, and Associate Professor David A. Robertson, of the Department of English, who is secretary of the association.

Ananda K. Coomaraswamy, D.Sc., curator of Indian Art at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts and author of notable books in his special field, gave an illustrated lecture on "Indian Painting, Buddhist and Hindu," before the Renaissance Society of the University of Chicago on November 11. The society the same evening held its annual meeting and elected as president Gordon Jennings Laing; vice-presidents, David Allan Robertson, Horace Spencer Fiske, J. C. M. Hanson, Charles L. Hutchinson, Lorado Taft; secretary, Mrs. Henry Gordon Gale; treasurer, Walter A. Payne; executive committee, Antoinette B. Hollister, Elizabeth Wallace, James A. Field, Walter Sargent, and Barrett Spach.

In addition to publishing in November the important new book on *The Revelation of John*, by Shirley Jackson Case, the University of Chicago Press announces new impressions of several other successful volumes: *A Survey of Religious Education in the Local Church*, by William C. Bower; *Principles of Money and Banking*, by Harold G. Moulton; *The Life of Jesus*, by Herbert W. Gates; *The Dramatization of Bible Stories*, by Elizabeth E. Miller; and *Principles of Banking*, by Harold G. Moulton.

The Revelation of John is a non-technical interpretation of what this mysterious book meant to the author and his contemporaries, and contains among other unique features a new English translation in which the obscure language of the book is rendered clearly and intelligibly. Of great historical interest is the description of the different interpretations of Revelation which have been current in the past.

Two centennial addresses were given in August at the University of Chicago—one on James Russell Lowell, by Professor Paul Shorey, Head of the Department of the Greek Language and Literature, August 15; and one on Whitman, by Associate Professor Percy Holmes Boynton, of the Department of English, August 20.

Dean Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago Divinity School, has been elected a director of the Universal Military Training League. The idea of the league is to train primarily for citizenship and secondarily for military service.

Professor Robert Andrews Millikan, of the Department of Physics, who was vice-chairman of the National Research Council during the war, has been appointed a member of the research fellowship board of that organization. Non-resident Professor George Ellery Hale, formerly chairman of the National Research Council, is also a member of the board, which has already assigned several fellowships in physics and chemistry. The object of the fellowships is to promote fundamental research in those fields, primarily in educational institutions in the United States.

At a recent meeting of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences Professor Forest Ray Moulton, of the Department of Astronomy and Astrophysics, was elected a fellow in the Section of Mathematics and Astronomy.

Professor Albert Feuillerat, University of Rennes, Visiting Professor at Yale, 1919–20, author of many important studies in Elizabethan history and literature, lectured July 24 in Harper Assembly Room, on "English Archives and How to Search Them."

Ten afternoon concerts for the eleventh season, 1919–20, are announced at the University of Chicago by the University Orchestral Association. There will be eight concerts by the Chicago Symphony Orchestra, and two recitals, one by Emilio De Gogorza, baritone, and one by Harold Henry, pianist. The date for the Symphony concerts are October 21, November 4 and 18, December 9, January 13, February 10 and 24, and April 13. The recitals will take place on January 27 and March 9. The Orchestral Association was organized to provide the best orchestral and chamber music and artist recitals for the University community.

Walter Sargent, Professor of Art Education at the University of Chicago, is the author of a bulletin issued by the Bureau of Education at Washington, on "Instruction in Art in the United States." The bulletin deals particularly with art instruction in elementary and high schools, in universities, and in professional schools. Professor Sargent is also the author of *Fine and Industrial Arts in Elementary Schools.*

A graduate of the University of Chicago, Miss Helen L. Drew, who received her Master's degree at that institution in 1915, has been made professor of English at Rockford College. For the past two years Miss Drew has been an instructor in English at Wellesley College.

Dr. Raymond D. Mullinix, who received his Doctor's degree from the University of Chicago in 1918, and who was an Associate in Chemistry for four years at the same institution, has also been elected to the faculty of Rockford College, his new position being that of professor of chemistry.

A Doctor of Philosophy from the University of Chicago, Evan Taylor Sage, has just been made professor and head of the department of Latin at the University of Pittsburgh. Dr. Sage was a lieutenant in the aviation service during the war and later was made a captain in the reserve corps.

President Harry Pratt Judson received in September the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws from Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia.

President Judson has recently been made chairman of the Committee on Rhodes Scholarships for the state of Illinois.

The Head of the new Department of Military Science and Tactics at the University of Chicago is Colonel Harold E. Marr, of the Field Artillery, United States Army. The Department also includes two Assistant Professors of Military Science and Tactics—Major James C. Lewis, Jr., F.A., and Captain Preston G. Vance, F.A. The object of the Department is to enable students of the University to earn reserve commissions as officers of field artillery in the army of the United States. It is intended to obtain this result with the least waste of time by providing military training at the same time that men are pursuing their general or professional studies. More than one hundred men have already enrolled for the course.

The work of the Department is planned to cover four years, but with the approval of the Faculty it may be completed in three. On being awarded a degree by the University the student will receive a commission as second lieutenant in the Field Artillery Reserve Corps.

In the summer camps, of six weeks each, special attention will be given to dismounted and mounted drill, pistol practice, standing gun drill, the riding and training of horses, use of motors, trucks, and tractors, reconnaissance, and artillery practice.

Alterations in Ellis Hall at Fifty-eighth Street and Ellis Avenue are being made to prepare classrooms for the Department of Military Science and Tactics and to house the cannon sent by the War Department to be used in connection with instruction in field artillery.

At a recent meeting of the American Mathematical Society Professor Leonard Eugene Dickson, of the Department of Mathematics, was appointed a representative of the society in the division of physical sciences of the National Research Council. Assistant Professor William D. MacMillan, of the Department of Astronomy and Astrophysics, was also appointed as a representative in the American section of the International Astronomical Union.

The Evolution of a Democratic School System, by Director Charles Hubbard Judd, of the School of Education at the University of Chicago, was recently announced by the publishers. It is a plea for co-operation in developing the junior high school system.

A member of the Faculty of the University of Chicago Law School, Judge Julian W. Mack, of the United States Circuit Court, has recently been elected to the Board of Overseers of Harvard University. Judge Mack, who is a graduate of Harvard, has been chairman of the section on compensation of soldiers and sailors and their dependents for the Council of National Defense.

A timely and authoritative book has been issued by the University of Chicago Press under the title of *The Spread of Christianity in the Modern World*. The author is the well-known professor of Christian morals in Harvard University, Edward Caldwell Moore, president of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, of which he is now the official representative in the Near East. Special attention is given in the book to the progress of missions in India, Japan, China, the Ottoman Empire, and Africa.

A striking comparison between conditions at the University of Chicago in 1892 and in 1919 was presented by President Harry Pratt Judson at the recent Anniversary Chapel Service.

In 1892 the total area of University grounds was four city blocks; the total area of grounds in 1919 is ninety-two acres. The total buildings in 1892 were four unfinished; in 1919, forty-one.

The total gifts paid in up to October 1, 1892, were $1,000,000; the total to the same date in 1919 was $53,506,086. The number of the Faculty in 1892 was one hundred and thirty-five; in 1919, three hundred and eighty-one.

The matriculations October 1, 1892, were 1; October 6, 1919, 79,901. The registrations in the year 1892–93 were 742; in the year 1916–17 they were 10,448; in the year 1918–19, 8,635; and in the Autumn Quarter, 1919, 5,375. There were no alumni in 1892; in 1919 there were 11,396.

The remarkable war service of the University is shown in the following: The total number of the Faculty enrolled for war service was 100; the total number of students and alumni in war service, including the Student Army Training Corps, was 4,355. The total killed or dead in service were 72; and the total honors, citations, medals, etc., were 10.

Over three hundred and thirty scholarships on the La Verne Noyes Foundation have been awarded for the Autumn Quarter at the University of Chicago. In previous quarters more than five hundred were assigned. The foundation, of an estimated value of $2,500,000, provides for paying the tuition of deserving students who served in the Great War or who shall be descendants by blood of anyone in service in the army or navy of the United States in that war.

Professor Anton J. Carlson, Chairman of the Department of Physiology at the University of Chicago, who was commissioned captain in the Sanitary Corps of the United States Army in 1917, made major in 1918, and lieutenant colonel in 1919, has just returned to his regular work at the University. Dr. Carlson was first in service in the United States and Canada, in the Division of Food and Nutrition, Office of the Surgeon General. He worked in twelve camps in the United States and was then sent on a special mission to Canada. His service in the American Expeditionary Force took him first to England, where he had supervision of the rations and the messing of United States troops in England and on British transports. Dr. Carlson also instituted a school for United States Army cooks at the Winchester Camp.

In October, 1918, Dr. Carlson was in the advanced sector and zone of operation in France, inspecting and improving messing conditions in camps and with field organizations; and in December he was ordered to Tours, Brest, and San Nazaire to arrange for satisfactory rations on foreign transports carrying United States troops. Later he was directed to report to Mr. Herbert Hoover in Paris, and continued with the American Relief Administration until August, 1919.

Under this organization Professor Carlson was on duty in Jugo-Slavia during the winter of 1918–19, investigating the food needs and recommending the food to be imported on credit from the United States. In the spring of 1919 Dr. Carlson was recalled to Paris and made the director of the division of the American Relief Administration known as the Children's Relief Bureau. He organized the American personnel and plans of distribution, and determined the kinds of food to the value of about $14,000,000 to be distributed to about 2,000,000 underfed children in Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, Austria, Roumania, Jugo-Slavia, Finland, the Baltic states, and parts of Western Russia freed from bolshevik control. Professor Carlson visited all these countries in person (except Roumania), paying particular attention to putting the child-welfare work on a national and permanent basis.

On the committee of the Roosevelt Memorial Association in Chicago are

the following: President Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago; Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson and Mr. Julius Rosenwald, of the Board of Trustees; and the following alumni of the institution: Mr. Donald R. Richberg, Mr. Roy D. Keehn, and Mr. Alvin F. Kramer. The movement for a memorial fund continued through the week of October 20–27.

The establishment at the University of a Field Artillery unit of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps is part of a federal project to insure a supply of competent officers in case of future emergency. Representative colleges and universities are co-operating with the War Department in putting the plan into operation, the chief idea of which is to co-ordinate the technical and theoretical military subjects with the usual university courses, giving the practical work in one or two summer camps. Upon satisfactory completion of the course, a student is offered a commission in the Field Artillery Reserve Corps.

Courses in fundamentals—organization, military customs and courtesies, regulations, hygiene, first aid, etc.—are being conducted for beginners during the Autumn Quarter at the University of Chicago; and courses in field artillery ordnance, topography and orientation, and equitation are being given for those of previous military training.

The United States government has generously supplied the University of Chicago with a three-inch firing battery complete, French, British, and American "75's," one 155 mm. howitzer and a gun of the same caliber, all the latest signal and fire equipment, trucks, tractors, motor cycles, etc., and what is of more interest to many students, fifty artillery and riding horses. Three officers and twenty-two enlisted men have also been detailed to the University by the War Department to provide the instruction and care for the equipment. Opportunities for enrolment in these military courses are still open.

Professor Paul Shorey, Head of the Department of the Greek Language and Literature at the University of Chicago, has been elected vice-president of the American Classical League organized at the last meeting of the National Education Association. The object of the league is to improve and extend classical education in the United States and to advance the cause of liberal education. Professor Shorey has the opening contribution in the *Classical Journal* for October—"What to Do for Greek," which he gave as an address before the National Classical Conference.

A graduate of the University of Chicago, Dr. Charles Bray Williams, who received both his Master's and Doctor's degree at that institution, has just been installed as president of Howard College, Alabama. Presidents of all the state and denominational colleges of Alabama attended the installation. Howard College (Baptist) is the largest denominational college in the state.

The registration for the Autumn Quarter shows an increase over the attendance in the corresponding quarter a year ago.

In the Graduate School of Arts and Literature there are 206 men and 168 women, a total of 374; and in the Ogden Graduate School of Science, 228 men and 82 women, a total of 310, making the total attendance in the Graduate Schools 684.

In the Senior Colleges 474 men are enrolled and 400 women, a total of 874; and in the Junior Colleges 894 men and 608 women, a total of 1,502. The total for the Colleges, including 152 Unclassified students, is 2,528.

In the Professional Schools there are 156 Divinity students, 203 Medical students, 306 Law students, 242 in Education, and 576 in Commerce and Administration, a total for the Professional Schools of 1,483. In University College the registrations are 1,225. The totals for the University, exclusive of duplications, are 2,934 men and 2,715 women, a grand total of 5,649, which is a gain of 1,337 over the Autumn Quarter of 1918.

Two important industrial fellowships in the Department of Botany have just been established by the Gypsum Industries Association. Each fellowship provides a stipend of $750 and also $300 for the purchase of special material and apparatus.

The holders of these fellowships are to investigate the value of gypsum and

other sulphur compounds as fertilizers for various crops on various soils in the United States. This work will involve both plot cultures and pot cultures in the greenhouse. It will also involve the analyses of many soils for many crops. The University will appoint the fellows and make public the results of the investigation.

By action of the Board of Trustees Professor Harry A. Millis, of the Department of Political Economy, has been authorized to give instruction half-time during the current academic year in order to render service as arbiter in questions relating to the clothing trade in Chicago.

The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has placed at the disposal of the Chairman of the Department of Hygiene and Bacteriology, Professor Edwin Oakes Jordan, a fund for the study of influenza and its complications. The University itself has also made an appropriation to the same Department for the study of influenza in co-operation with investigations in Boston, New York, and Washington.

The Fleischmann Company has renewed the fellowship in the Department of Physiological Chemistry which was established in 1917. The income of the fellowship provides $750 a year for two years.

The president of the Board of Trustees has appointed a committee of three of the Trustees to confer with a committee of the alumni on the question of a suitable memorial to be placed in the quadrangles of the University for alumni who have given their lives in the war with Germany and Austria-Hungary. The committee from the Trustees consists of Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson, President Harry Pratt Judson, and Mr. Harold H. Swift. The committee from the alumni consists of Mr. Frank McNair, Ph.B., '03; Mr. Leo F. Wormser, Ph.B., '05, J.D. '09; and Mr. Emery B. Jackson, A.B., '02. Mr. McNair, who is chairman of the Alumni Council, is a banker, Mr. Wormser a lawyer, and Mr. Jackson an architect.

An alumnus of the University of Chicago Law School, Mr. Roy D. Keehn (J.D., '04), has just given to the University funds for the support of a graduate fellowship in the Law School during the current year. Mr. Keehn, who also took his degree of Bachelor of Philosophy from the University, is a prominent lawyer in Chicago, having formerly been associated in the practice of law with ex-Secretary of War Jacob M. Dickinson, and being now consulting counsel for the *Chicago American* and the *Chicago Herald-Examiner*.

Three new appointments are just announced at the University, as follows: Mr. Morris Kharasch has been appointed as a National Research Council fellow in chemistry, Mr. Richard W. Watkins as an instructor in the Department of Anatomy, and Miss Emma Kohman as an instructor in the Department of Physiology.

One of the great enigmas of biblical literature has been the closing book of the New Testament. Few people know when or why it was written, and its specific reference to a millennium has made it much quoted in support of strange theories about the imminent end of the world and the futility of human effort to make this earth a better place on which to live. The need, therefore, of a sane historical exposition of the book has resulted in an adequate volume announced for immediate publication by the University of Chicago Press under the title, *The Revelation of John*. The volume, by Shirley Jackson Case, Professor of Early Church History and New Testament Interpretation in the University of Chicago, embodies the latest results and soundest conclusions of modern historical knowledge.

The central theme of the book is to explain the meaning of *Revelation* as its author intended it to be understood by those to whom it was first addressed. It introduces the modern reader also to the conditions under which John and his fellow-Christians were living when *Revelation* was written. As a means of acquainting readers with the peculiar type of writing known as a revelation, a chapter is devoted to the description of this class of book which was current among the Jews, Gentiles, and Christians when John wrote. The book also describes the different interpretations of *Revelation* which have been current in the past.

The author, Dr. Case, is widely known for his volumes on *The Millennial*

Hope, The Historicity of Jesus, and *The Evolution of Early Christianity*.

Judge Frederick A. Smith, of the Circuit Court of Cook County, Illinois, who by his will left to the University of Chicago his law library and $25,000, had been a Trustee of the University of Chicago for twenty-nine years. Judge Smith was a graduate of the old University of Chicago in the class of 1866, and of the Union College of Law. He had been president of the Chicago Law Club, the Chicago Bar Association, and the Hamilton Club. He also served as vice-president of the Union League Club and was a trustee of Rush Medical College. Judge Smith was a lifelong resident of Chicago and deeply interested in the progress of the city and the University.

A graduate of the University of Chicago in the class of 1907, Bernard Iddings Bell, has recently been elected president of St. Stephen's College, New York. For several years he was dean of St. Paul's Cathedral in Fond du Lac, Wisconsin, and during the war was personal aid to the senior chaplain at the Great Lakes Naval Station, where his work was especially effective. President Bell is the author of two books growing out of the war—*Right and Wrong after the War* and *The Work of the Church for Men at War*, and he has also been a contributor to the *Atlantic Monthly* on religious topics.

Howard Mumford Jones, who received his Master's degree from the University of Chicago in 1915 and gave the Convocation Ode before the Phi Beta Kappa at the Quarter-Centennial the following year, has recently been made associate professor of general literature in the University of Texas, having been called from the University of Montana, where he was professor of English.

A fellow in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, Clarence Leon Clarke, who is a candidate for the Doctor's degree, has been elected to a professorship of education at Beloit College.

A book that gives a bird's-eye view of the science of psychology has been published by the University of Chicago Press under the title of *General Psychology*. The author, Dr. Walter S. Hunter, who received his Doctor's degree from the University of Chicago in 1912, is professor and head of the department of psychology at the University of Kansas and served in the war as first lieutenant in the United States Army Medical Corps.

ATTENDANCE REPORT, SUMMER QUARTER, 1919

	First Term			Second Term			First Term Only			Second Term Only			Both Terms			Total 1919			Total 1918			Gain	Loss
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total		
I. The Department of Arts, Literature, and Science:																							
1. The Graduate Schools—																							
Arts and Literature	548	628	1,176	413	431	844	207	354	561	72	157	229	341	274	615	620	785	1,405	333	722	1,055	350	....
Science	328	162	490	307	134	441	54	53	107	33	25	58	274	109	383	361	187	548	266	161	427	121	....
Total	876	790	1,666	720	565	1,285	261	407	668	105	182	287	615	383	998	981	972	1,953	599	883	1,482	471	....
2. The Colleges—																							
Senior	186	210	396	182	194	376	19	42	61	15	26	41	167	168	335	201	236	437	161	240	401	36	....
Junior	162	124	286	142	100	242	28	37	65	8	13	21	134	87	221	170	137	307	114	122	236	71	....
Unclassified	221	256	477	213	192	405	41	133	174	33	69	102	180	123	303	254	325	579	178	277	455	124	....
Total	569	590	1,159	537	486	1,023	88	212	300	56	108	164	481	378	859	625	698	1,323	453	639	1,092	231	....
Total Arts, Literature, and Science	1,445	1,380	2,825	1,257	1,051	2,308	349	619	968	161	290	451	1,096	761	1,857	1,606	1,670	3,276	1,052	1,522	2,574	702	....
II. The Professional Schools:																							
1. Divinity—																						....	....
Graduate	124	15	139	118	17	135	30	2	32	24	4	28	94	13	107	148	19	167	118	11	129	....	....
Unclassified	43	12	55	58	11	69	5	5	10	20	4	24	38	7	45	63	16	79	53	17	70		
Chicago Theological Seminary	19	2	21	20	2	22	4	2	6	5	2	7	15	.....	15	24	4	28	20	1	21	....	....
Total	186	29	215	196	30	226	39	9	48	49	10	59	147	20	167	235	39	274	191	29	220	54	....
2. Medicine—																							
Graduate	60	12	72	67	12	79	2	.....	2	9	.....	9	58	12	70	69	12	81	88	7	95	....	....
Senior	31	6	37	31	6	37	1	.....	1	1	.....	1	30	6	36	32	6	38	47	1	48	....	....
Junior	2	.....	2	2	.....	2	0	.....	0	0	.....	0	2	.....	2	2	.....	2	1	1	2	....	....
Unclassified	41	1	42	40	1	41	1	.....	1	0	.....	0	40	1	41	41	1	42	35	1	36	....	....
Total	134	19	153	140	19	159	4	.....	4	10	.....	10	130	19	149	144	19	163	171	10	181	....	18
3. Law—																							
Graduate	91	5	96	86	3	89	11	3	14	7	.....	7	80	3	83	98	6	104	38	3	41	....	....
Senior	21	.....	21	19	.....	19	3	.....	3	1	.....	1	18	.....	18	22	.....	22	5	2	7	....	....
Candidates for LL.B.	33	3	36	30	1	31	6	1	7	1	.....	1	28	1	29	35	2	37	10	2	12	....	....
Unclassified	0	0	0	1	.....	1	0	.....	0	0	.....	0	1	.....	1	1	.....	1	0	.....	0	....	....
Total	147	8	155	136	4	140	20	4	24	9	.....	9	127	4	131	156	8	164	53	7	60	104	....
4. The College of Education	102	861	963	75	522	597	53	613	666	26	274	300	49	248	297	128	1,135	1,263	70	872	942	421	....
5. The School of Commerce and Administration	41	15	56	36	13	49	6	2	8	1	.....	1	35	13	48	42	15	57	24	17	41	16	....
Total Professional	610	932	1,542	583	588	1,171	122	628	750	95	284	379	488	304	792	705	1,216	1,921	509	935	1,444	477	....
Total University	2,055	2,312	4,367	1,840	1,639	3,479	471	1,247	1,718	256	574	830	1,584	1,065	2,649	2,311	2,886	5,197	1,561	2,457	4,018	1,179	....
Deduct Duplicates	155	19	174	159	19	178	7	.....	7	11	.....	11	148	19	167	166	19	185	179	12	191	....	....
Net Total	1,900	2,293	4,193	1,681	1,620	3,301	464	1,247	1,711	245	574	819	1,436	1,046	2,482	2,145	2,867	5,012	1,382	2,445	3,827	1,185	....

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Edited by

D. A. ROBERTSON

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(New Series)

JANUARY 1920

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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

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EDITOR

DAVID ALLAN ROBERTSON

Vol. VI

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CHARLES HITCHCOCK

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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

VOLUME VI JANUARY 1920 NUMBER 1

THE PRESIDENT'S CHARGE TO GRADUATES[1]

You have been given parchments reciting the action of the University of Chicago in bestowing on you the respective degrees to which you are entitled. In the Latin formulas you will find that you are granted all the rights and privileges of those academic degrees. I now call your attention to the converse of those rights and privileges—the obligations which you now incur. We hear much of rights but too little of the correlative obligations. Remember that every right, whether in accordance with the law of the land or of those still more fundamental moral laws which are vital to all political and social structure, carries with it a duty which the individual owes society, quite as much as society owes respect of individual rights. With each new right and privilege, therefore, you at once come under the obligation of a new duty.

By virtue of your degrees you are admitted to the great body of our citizens who have enjoyed the benefit of college life or of professional training. In a certain sense, therefore, you belong to a body selected from their fellows by special opportunities. Accordingly, while you rest under all the common obligations of citizenship, you also are under special obligations incumbent on all who have had such opportunities.

I charge you always to remember what you owe to Alma Mater. This obligation is not discharged by cheers in a crowd of one's fellows, still less in later life by contributions from one's abundance. Loyalty to Alma Mater implies obedience to its best teaching, devotion to truth, using one's powers always and everywhere so as to keep the name of the University stainless in the lives of its sons and of its daughters.

[1] First used at the One Hundred and Fourteenth Convocation in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, December 23, 1919.

I charge you to remember that the safety of our free Republic depends above all on the sacredness of the home, and that every graduate of our higher institutions of learning should jealously guard his own life so as to cherish this essence of our civilization especially against the loose thinking of idle visionaries.

I charge you to remember that as educated men and women you owe an especial duty to our country, not only if need be to give your lives to it in time of battle, but to guard its fabric from destruction at the hands of those whose ignorance or fanaticism makes them enemies within the gates. The Constitution of our land must be defended from all hostile action. Its changes should be permitted only under the orderly forms of law. Obedience to law is the first duty of a citizen of a free state, and our alumni should always be an embattled host in allegiance to this duty.

These three loyalties, loyalty to Alma Mater, loyalty to home, loyalty to country, I charge you to heed as among those which you above all others owe without stint.

I ask no pledges save such as you give spontaneously in your own hearts and consciences.

Only, speaking for the University, I charge you as its sons and daughters to be faithful always in the great loyalties of life.

THE PRESIDENT'S CONVOCATION STATEMENT[1]

1. ATTENDANCE

The attendance of students during the quarter just closing is the largest in the history of the University. The largest heretofore was that of the Autumn Quarter of 1916 just preceding the entry of the United States into the Great War. In that quarter there were 3,768 in the quadrangles and 1,169 in the University College, being a total of 4,937. The registration for the current Autumn Quarter shows a total of 4,463 in the quadrangles and 1,219 in the University College, a total of 5,682, being a gain of 745 as compared with 1916.

This considerable increase in attendance the University shares with other institutions throughout the country; and of course it is to be expected as resulting from the close of the war and the release of young men, especially from military duties. It has not been easy to provide adequate housing or adequate instruction, but at the same time these somewhat serious problems have been solved.

2. NEW GIFTS

There have been several interesting gifts during the current quarter.

Mr. Theodore W. Robinson, of Chicago, gives $500 for the use of the Oriental Institute of the University, to be used in purchasing museum material.

A rare collection of portraits of contemporary authors, artists, and scientists lithographed by William Rothenstein, of London, has been given to the University. It is important not only as a record of personalities but also as an exhibition of the art of lithography.

From Dr. Frank Gunsaulus the University Library received a very rare book which in turn the University gave to Cardinal Mercier for the library of the University of Louvain on the occasion of the Cardinal's visit to the University, October 22, 1919. The University preferred to give to Louvain the most valuable of its rare books rather than to send material which it did not need.

[1] Read at the One Hundred and Fourteenth Convocation in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, December 23, 1919.

Mrs. Gustavus F. Swift, of Chicago, adds $8,000 to the previous endowment of the Gustavus F. Swift Fellowship, making the income from that fellowship amount to $925. This fellowship is awarded for the encouragement of research, and is given only to a student who has already proved his capacity for investigation.

Mr. Charles R. Crane renews his gift of $13,000 for instruction and library materials in Russian language and institutions.

A donor whose name is withheld gives $25,000 for the purchase of museum material for the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago. This will be used by Professor James H. Breasted, who is now in Egypt on his way to Mesopotamia in prosecution of the work of the Institute.

3. PENDING DEVELOPMENTS AND IMMEDIATE NEEDS OF THE UNIVERSITY

This subject is treated at length in the autumn number of the *University Record*, which has just appeared from the press. Particular attention is invited to the topics discussed, as they bear on the immediate and pressing needs of the University. They will not be discussed further at this time.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

By J. SPENCER DICKERSON, *Secretary*

APPOINTMENTS

In addition to reappointments the following appointments have been made by the Board of Trustees:

Morris Kharasch, National Research Fellow in the Department of Chemistry.

J. E. Schott, Research Associate in the Department of Chemistry.

Richard W. Watkins, Instructor in the Department of Anatomy.

Emma Kohman, Instructor in the Department of Physiology.

Bernard Raymund, Associate in the Department of Physiology.

Mary Grace Hamilton, Teacher in the Department of English of the University High School.

Robert David Highfill, Teacher in the Department of English of the University High School.

Ruth Turnbull, Associate in the Department of Physical Culture.

Margaret Burns, Instructor in the Department of Physical Culture.

Catherine Campbell, Associate in the Department of Physical Culture.

H. M. Weeter, Associate in the Department of Hygiene and Bacteriology.

Vergil Claybourne Lohr, Teacher in Physics in the University High School.

Harry B. Van Dyke, Associate in the Department of Pharmacology and Physiology.

Clay Judson, Instructor in the Law School.

LEAVES OF ABSENCE

Leaves of absence have been granted to:

Professor James H. Breasted, Director of Haskell Oriental Museum, for one year from October 1, 1919.

Assistant Professor Daniel David Luckenbill, of the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures, for the Winter, Spring, and Summer Quarters, 1920.

PROMOTIONS

The following members of the faculties have received, by action of the Board of Trustees, a promotion in rank:

Assistant Professor Fred Conrad Koch to an associate professorship in the Department of Physiological Chemistry.

Charles O. Hardy, Lecturer in the School of Commerce and Administration, to an assistant professorship in the same school.

Instructor James O. McKinsey to an assistant professorship in the School of Commerce and Administration.

Instructor Leverett S. Lyon to an assistant professorship in the School of Commerce and Administration.

RESIGNATIONS

The Board of Trustees has accepted the resignations of the following members of the faculties:

A. E. Hennings, Teacher of Physics in the University High School.

Harold O. Rugg, Associate Professor in the Department of Education.

C. S. Duncan, Assistant Professor in the School of Commerce and Administration.

Frank H. Knight, Instructor in the Department of Political Economy.

T. T. Crooks, Associate in the Department of Hygiene and Bacteriology.

Emma A. Kohman, Instructor in the Department of Physiology.

Kenneth B. Hunter, Teacher in the Department of English of the University High School.

FELLOWSHIPS

Mrs. G. F. Swift has contributed $8,000 in bonds as additional endowment of the Gustavus F. Swift Fellowship Fund in Chemistry. The fund now amounts to approximately $18,000. This fellowship, endowed by one of the most generous of the University's friends, "is for the encouragement of research; and the qualifications of the gift are: (*a*) that the candidate must have proved his capacity for research; (*b*) that the appointee is to be freed from the requirement of University service."

The Fleischmann Company, of Peekskill, New York, has renewed its fellowship in the Department of Physiological Chemistry for two years from July 1, 1919, under the same conditions as during the previous two years. The company provides $750 each year.

The Gypsum Industries Association has provided two industrial fellowships in the Department of Botany with a stipend of $750 each, besides an appropriation for purchase of special material and apparatus. The fellowships are offered for the academic year, 1919–20. The fellows are to investigate the value of gypsum and other sulphur compounds as fertilizers for various crops on various soils in the United States. This work will involve both plot cultures and pot cultures in the greenhouse. It will also involve the analyses of many soils for many crops.

In the acceptance of these and similar industrial fellowships the understanding is that the University shall appoint the fellows and that the results of their investigations shall be made public.

GIFTS

Mr. Roy D. Keehn, of Chicago, has given $200 for the support of a graduate fellowship in the Law School during the current academic year.

The Board of Trustees accepted, at its meeting held October 14, 1919, some 130 pieces of property—rugs, furniture, paintings, pottery, books, bric-à-brac, etc.—bequeathed to the University under the will of La Verne Noyes for use in Ida Noyes Hall. There were also presented by the executors of the will a portrait of Mr. Noyes by Louis Betts, and two bronzes. The portrait now hangs in Hutchinson Hall.

The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has placed at the disposal of Professor E. O. Jordan, Chairman of the Department of Hygiene and Bacteriology, the sum of $3,200 to be expended in study of influenza and its complications. The Board of Trustees has added $2,000 to this amount to be used for a similar purpose in co-operation with investigations being conducted in Boston, New York, and Washington.

The University has received a pledge of $25,000 from a donor whose name is not announced, the fund to be used in purchasing materials for Haskell Oriental Museum. The University also has provided $5,000 from its funds, and there are other resources amounting to $5,600, including a recent gift of $500 from Mr. T. W. Robinson, of Chicago. Professor J. H. Breasted, Director of the Museum, is in Egypt engaged in examination and study of the exceptionally large amount of suitable objects which the war has permitted to accumulate. Already he has made a selection in Paris and in Cairo, some of which material has been received in Chicago.

ALUMNI WAR MEMORIAL

The committee to confer with a committee of the alumni on the question of a suitable memorial to be placed within the quadrangles of the University for alumni who gave their lives in the war with Germany and Austria-Hungary consists of Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson, President Judson, and Mr. Harold H. Swift. The alumni committee is composed of Messrs. Frank McNair, Leo Wormser, and Emery B. Jackson.

NEW HALLS FOR WOMEN

The Committee on Buildings and Grounds, under instruction from the Board of Trustees, has authorized Mr. C. A. Coolidge, architect of Ida Noyes Hall, Harper Library, and other University buildings, to prepare sketches for a group of women's halls eventually to be erected on the north portion of the block on which Ida Noyes Hall stands. Funds have not yet been provided for these much-needed buildings.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

By action of the Board of Trustees a plan for reorganization of the Press has been adopted. The operations of the Press are now conducted upon the following scheme of organization:

The functions of the Press consists of:

The publication and manufacture of books and journals, the printing of official documents and other matter for the University, and of the retail sale of books and supplies for the benefit of the University community.

The general administration of the Press is in the hands of a committee of the Board of Trustees known as the Committee on Press and Extension.

The administration of the Press so far as details are concerned is in the hands of an Administrative Committee consisting of the President of the University, the Business Manager of the University, the Secretary of the Board of Trustees, the Auditor, the manager of each of the three departments of the Press, the General Editor, the Chairman of the Committee on Press and Extension, and the Chairman of the Subcommittee on the Bookstore.

The Administrative Committee has a subcommittee on publications and printing consisting of the Managers of the Publishing and Manufacturing Departments and the General Editor.

The Faculty Board heretofore known as the Board of the University Press will be known hereafter as the Board of University Publications. This Board is authorized to recommend the publication of books and journals, and to make suggestions as to typographical style and usage.

THE LATE LA VERNE NOYES

The Board of Trustees at the meeting held October 14, 1919, adopted the following resolutions as an expression of appreciation of the notable

gifts to the University made by Mr. La Verne Noyes, who died during the previous summer:

Resolved, That on occasion of the death of La Verne Noyes, of this city, the Board of Trustees of the University of Chicago desires to record its deep sense of the loss to the University of so wise and generous a friend, and to the state of so good a citizen. His large gifts to the University were planned by him with great care, with a clear vision of results to be expected, and with profound patriotic feeling. Mr. Noyes was the architect of his own fortunes and had in consequence a vivid sympathy with the ambitions and efforts of young men and women. His loyalty to his country and his conviction of the righteousness of its cause in the Great War made him eager to do some lasting thing for the perpetuation of national gratitude to those who ventured the supreme sacrifice of life at the call of the Republic. The beautiful and effective structure for our women students, Ida Noyes Hall, is at the same time a memorial to the cherished companion of Mr. Noyes for many years, and an incomparable element of help to the life of our young women for generations to come. The liberal provision for scholarships in the La Verne Noyes Foundation to be enjoyed by those who served in the American Army or Navy in the late war, or their descendants, is a lasting expression of the devotion to his country of a good citizen. The name of La Verne Noyes will be kept in memory in the University of Chicago.

Resolved, That the foregoing expression of the sentiment of the Board of Trustees be inscribed in the minutes of its proceedings.

FORMS FOR GIFTS TO THE UNIVERSITY

Following are the approved forms for use in bequests made to the University:

a) I give, devise, and bequeath to the University of Chicago.....

b) I give, devise, and bequeath to the University of Chicago.....Dollars, as an endowment fund, the income only to be used for.....; said endowment fund to be known as the.....

c) I give, devise, and bequeath to the University of Chicago the sum of Four Thousand Dollars for the establishment of a scholarship at the University of Chicago to be known as the.....Scholarship.

CHARLES HITCHCOCK

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

The study of American genealogies is a fascinating pursuit. The student is constantly discovering interesting and surprising things. In the *University Record* of October, 1914, a sketch of Sidney A. Kent related how his ancestors settled about 1670 the wilderness of Suffield, Connecticut. Charles Hitchcock was a prominent lawyer, as Mr. Kent was a prominent business man of Chicago. While Mr. Kent's forefathers were subduing the Suffield wilderness, the ancestors of Mr. Hitchcock were hewing out homes for themselves in the same wilderness not more than five miles to the north, in the town of Springfield, Massachusetts, being allotted lands on the border of Suffield. The tract, indeed, was so near being a part of Suffield that it was expressly stipulated that care must be taken not to encroach on that town's domain. The ancestors were neighbors and no doubt acquaintances. Two hundred years later the two men descended from them were neighbors and acquaintances in a great city nearly a thousand miles away.

The writer can recall the names of only a dozen men of his native village on the Hudson River. One of these men was Dwight Hitchcock, a direct descendant of the Hitchcocks of Springfield, who in 1853 sold to my father the steam foundry of the village. He had wandered only a little more than a hundred miles from the home of his fathers.

The earliest ancestor of Charles Hitchcock in America was Luke, who became temporarily a citizen of New Haven about 1644, six years after what was then the colony of New Haven was founded. After the lapse of a hundred and fifty years, a descendant put on record the following account of Luke Hitchcock:

> He had received a large tract of land lying in the eastern part of New England and came out with a view of taking possession of the same. When he arrived he found it inhabited by numerous hordes of natives determined to resist all encroachments of the English. In this situation he determined to abandon the enterprise, and settled in Wethersfield (Connecticut). He was peculiarly fortunate in cultivating the friendship of the Indians, who, in testimony of their attachment, gave him a deed to the town of Farmington. This deed was a clear and valid title to the land, but was so little thought of that it was destroyed by his wife, who used it to cover a pie in the oven.

It is quite consistent with this account that when Luke Hitchcock first appeared in New England he seems to have been uncertain where

MRS. CHARLES HITCHCOCK

he should settle. Matthias Hitchcock, who was probably his brother, was one of the founders of New Haven in 1638. When Luke followed him five or six years later, he took the freeman's oath, but after a few months' stay in New Haven departed for Wethersfield, thirty miles to the north. There he married into a leading family and made the town his home. When he died in 1659 his estate was valued at $2,260, which shows him to have been a forehanded man. A year or two after his death his widow migrated thirty miles farther north to Springfield, Massachusetts, twenty-five years after the Pynchons founded that settlement.

The widow Hitchcock brought with her two sons, John and Luke. The Hitchcock family, therefore, though not numbered among the founders, were very early settlers of Springfield. The boys growing to manhood rose to prominence and may be justly regarded as among the fathers of the town. Both the Hitchcocks were among the most substantial citizens, as were their sons after them.

We are concerned with Luke, the younger of the two brothers. Taught the shoemaker's trade, a fundamental and profitable industry of that day, he later became the proprietor of the village hotel, no doubt known in the speech of the time as Hitchcock's Tavern. He was a captain in the militia and sheriff of the county which then included what are now the counties of Hampshire, Hampden, Franklin, and Berkshire, about one-third of the area of the state. He was seven times selectman of Springfield and nine times representative in the General Court of Massachusetts.

His wife's family, counting from her grandfather, Henry Burt, one of the most prominent of the first settlers, numbers among its descendants the late ex-President Grover Cleveland, Silas Wright, one of the governors of New York, Ethan Allen, of revolutionary fame, Ezra Stiles, former president of Yale College, and Oliver Wendell Holmes, author of the *Autocrat at the Breakfast Table.*

Among the sons of this second Luke was Ebenezer, born in 1694, who married Mary Sheldon, granddaughter of Colonel John Pynchon, the great man of early Springfield, and a direct descendant of Gilbert Sheldon, archbishop of Canterbury. Their son, Gad Hitchcock, was born in Springfield, February 22, 1719, and was graduated from Harvard College in 1743. On his mother's side Gad was descended from Colonel Pynchon and George Willis, governor of Connecticut. He was one of the most picturesque and distinguished clergymen of the Massachusetts of the eighteenth century. He was ordained as pastor over the Congregational church in Hanson, Plymouth County, in 1748. The church

invited him to become its pastor at a salary of $500. He replied that he would be glad to settle in Hanson, but would need a stipend of $2,000. His terms were immediately accepted and he continued as pastor of the church till 1803, a period of fifty-five years. He was an able and popular preacher, being often called upon to preach on important occasions.

In 1774 he preached the annual election sermon in Boston. An ardent patriot, he spoke on the text, "When the righteous are in authority the people rejoice; but when the wicked bear rule the people mourn." General Gage, the royal governor, was present, but the courageous preacher did not hesitate to enter a strong protest against tyranny and to make an earnest plea for liberty. Later in the same year Plymouth invited him to preach the anniversary sermon on Forefathers' Day. It is stated as an established fact that "the first newspaper printed in the Old Colony was at Plymouth in 1786." Dr. Hitchcock's sermon was preached twelve years before that date. But seven days later, on December 29, 1774, Plymouth appointed a committee "to wait on the Revd. Gad Hitchcock with the thanks of this town for his ingenious & Learned discourse delivered on 22nd Instant, being the Anniversary of the landing of our Fathers in this Place, and request a Copy for the Press." For what press, if not for that of Plymouth, and was there a newspaper printed in Plymouth as early as 1774?

The Reverend Gad Hitchcock served as an occasional chaplain in the patriot army and in 1780 was chosen a member of the convention which framed the first constitution of Massachusetts, doing for that state the same honorable service which his great-grandson did for Illinois ninety years later.

The only son of Dr. Gad Hitchcock, born in 1749 and graduated from Harvard in 1768, bore his name, Gad, and was the Hanson physician for more years than the father was the Hanson pastor, living to his eighty-seventh year, 1835. He was the father of twelve children. One of these was Charles, born September 4, 1794, who became a farmer in his native town. He married Abigail L. Hall, a daughter of one of the first families of the adjacent town of Pembroke, on the border of which the farm was located.

Their son, Charles Hitchcock, with whom this sketch is concerned, was born on his father's farm April 4, 1827. The town of Hanson is a part of Plymouth County and hardly more than ten miles northwest of Plymouth Rock. It is a town of farms, Hanson and North and South Hanson being insignificant hamlets with an aggregate population of only a few hundreds. It is a pleasant countryside of small groves

and small farms, watercourses and lakelets, the soil fairly fertile, the surface undulating, a quietly picturesque district. The Atlantic is eight or ten miles distant and Boston only twenty miles away. It was a pleasant region in which to be born and spend one's boyhood, almost within sight of the ocean, in the environs of a famous city, and surrounded by points of great historic interest.

The boy Charles bore a name highly honored in the community and the family was in fairly comfortable circumstances. There were three sons and two daughters, Charles being the oldest of the five. He was, therefore, his father's principal assistant on the farm as he grew toward the stature of a man. But he also availed himself of every advantage which the schools of Hanson and Pembroke could give him. So rapid was his improvement in school and such was his reputation for scholarship that, while he was still a boy, he began to be in demand as a school teacher. The way to the academy and college was open before him. The demands of the farm on his time and the inadequacy of the neighboring schools had delayed his preparation, indeed, but only delayed it. He had reached the age of seventeen and was pushing forward his studies as best he could when that great tragedy of a boy's life occurred—the death of his father. When he died in 1844, the father was only fifty years old. He left a family of young children, and Charles, the boy of seventeen, became the mother's chief dependence and was recognized as the head of the household. Fortunately he was thoughtful, mature for his years, self-reliant, and resourceful. A very tender relation of mutual responsibility and affection grew up between the mother and her oldest son. She began to live for him and he to live for her in their common responsibility for the family.

The natural and easy way for the boy was to step into his father's place in the management of the farm and thus provide for the common support until the younger boys and girls should reach maturity. But there had been born in young Hitchcock an ambition for learning, that extraordinary human development which the ordinary man cannot understand. This boy believed he could do more for his mother, for his brothers and sisters, and for himself if he disciplined his mind into an instrument of power than he could possibly do by working with his hands in the cultivation of a small farm. He was by nature a student. Already, as opportunity offered, he was teaching school, and he now redoubled his efforts on the farm and in teaching. In the schools of Hanson and Pembroke and in private study he sought to hasten his preparation for college. This was, of course, necessarily delayed by the

burdens resting on his young shoulders, but by dint of determination and perseverance he succeeded in entering Phillipps-Andover Academy in the spring of 1846, when about nineteen years old. One of his classmates has said of this period of his life: "He had at that time great vigor of body and mind. In the academy he applied himself to all the studies preparatory for college with indomitable industry, and it soon became manifest to the teachers and to his fellow-students that he had no superior there in ability to make solid acquisitions in learning. In something less than half the time prescribed by the academy for the preparatory course of study, he became admirably fitted for college." His vacations were spent in teaching school or doing what was essential on the farm and arranging for the final disposition of that property.

In 1847 he entered Dartmouth College. His grandfather, the physician, and his great-grandfather, the Hanson pastor for so many years, were both graduates of Harvard. Why did he pass by that famous institution to take his college course in the wilds of New Hampshire and in the little village of Hanover, which in 1847, outside the faculty and students, could not have had five hundred inhabitants? Was it because he lived almost in sight of Marshfield, the home of Daniel Webster, who was the most distinguished graduate of Dartmouth, and whose fame, during the youth of Charles Hitchcock, filled the land? Marshfield was hardly five miles from Hanson. No doubt the boy often saw the great man and knew him, as Webster was himself a farmer and cultivated exceedingly cordial terms of friendship with the farmers of that whole region. He was unaffectedly attached to them and they were devoted to him. In his *Life* George Ticknor Curtis says: "It was a common remark that, when Mr. Webster was at home, a stranger might discover it anywhere within ten miles of his house in the looks of the inhabitants." It is natural to suppose that Webster, knowing that here was a promising candidate for college, encouraged young Hitchcock and commended Dartmouth to him. However this may be, the autumn of 1847 found him in that institution. The buildings of the college were then few in number. Many students found it necessary to find rooms and board in the village. The boy and his mother had disposed of the farm, moved to Hanover, and opened a student boarding-house. It was really a large family. The mother made a home for boys who, for the time being, needed a mother's thought and care. Daniel L. Shorey, young Hitchcock's roommate at Andover, became a member of the family and again shared his room throughout their college course.

It was the day of small colleges. Harvard had only 300 undergraduates, and there were 200 at Dartmouth. The village of Hanover is about fifty miles north of the Massachusetts line and on the extreme western border of New Hampshire. It stands on a plain west of the Connecticut, one hundred and eighty feet above that river. The surrounding country is diversified with hills and valleys, with mountains looming above the nearer hills. In commending it as a location for a college, one writer says: "The uniform temperature of the climate, the pleasantness of the village, the healthfulness of the situation, the beautiful and romantic scenery . . . . the many pleasant resorts, all contribute to render it, in every essential, a seat of literature and science. . . . . The gradually rising Green Hills of Vermont, seen in the distance, furnish a picture not soon forgotten." At the time when Charles Hitchcock was a student the village was very small, and, practically, the college—with its faculty, students, employees, and those who served them in one way or another—the college was the village. It was a college community in a sense true, probably, of no other community in our country. The life of the college was the life of the community. This still remains true. In *The Story of Dartmouth College*, published in 1914, Wilder D. Quint says: "Today there is not a man, woman, or child in the village but is dependent in some way upon the college for a livelihood. She is the *summum bonum* of Hanover and without her the place would revert to nature."

At Dartmouth young Hitchcock spent the four years from 1847 to 1851, from his twentieth to his twenty-fourth year. His class numbered forty-six. Among them, as has been said, was Daniel L. Shorey, who was Hitchcock's roommate and remained his close, lifelong friend. Mr. Shorey was himself no mean scholar, yet he says: "For seven or eight years following our meeting in Andover in the spring of 1846, we were companions in study, being in the same classes in the academy, at college, and at the law school. . . . . In college he immediately took and held the highest rank. He was the unquestioned leader of his class from the beginning. Nor did he devote himself to the required studies of the college only. His reading and study covered a wide field beyond—in political economy, philosophy, history, and throughout the whole range of the English classics." The life of the students of that day, before the era of athletics and other college activities of our time, centered, outside the classroom, very largely about the fraternity chapters. The two chums were Alpha Delts and both achieved membership for high scholarship in Phi Beta Kappa. But with his mother's large

family to care for the son must have had duties, outside his college work, that kept him very busily employed.

Before his graduation, probably before entering college, Mr. Hitchcock had chosen the law as his profession. Hanover being his home at the time of his graduation in 1851, he entered the law office of Daniel Blaisdell, who was treasurer of Dartmouth College, where he spent a year in preliminary law studies. At the end of that time an opportunity came to him to go to Washington as a teacher of Greek and Latin in an academy. It was so good a chance to become acquainted with life in the national capital, and at the same time earn funds needed for further study, that he accepted the proffer made to him and with his friend Shorey, who seems to have received a similar invitation, spent the year 1852–53 in teaching in that city. He seems also to have done some lecturing on scientific topics and gained some reputation as a teacher and scholar. Meantime he continued his law studies under the guidance of the Honorable Joseph Bradley. Declining tempting invitations to continue teaching, he entered the law school of Harvard in 1853. Having been pursuing the study of law for two years or more under the guidance of very competent lawyers, and being twenty-six years old, he found no difficulty in entering the Senior class and graduating at the end of one year, in 1854. He had kept up his law-office work at the same time, having a desk during the year with Harvey Jewell, of Boston.

Charles Hitchcock was now twenty-seven years of age. He had finished the preparatory work and was ready to enter on his career. He had come face to face with that question which many young men find so difficult to answer, Where shall I do the work of my life? Strangely enough, he lost no time in coming to a decision. Doubtless he had decided the question long before. During his youth the miracle of Chicago had happened. When he was a boy of seven the hamlet of Chicago had a population of about five hundred. Twenty years later, in 1854, it was a city of 66,000 people, in its extraordinary growth the wonder city of America. It was evident, moreover, that it had only just begun to grow. Ambitious young men of every state felt its attractive power. None felt it more strongly than Charles Hitchcock. He hardly waited for the ink to dry on his diploma before he was on his way to Chicago. To get his bearings and become acquainted with the courts and laws of Illinois and with the city in which he was to practice, he entered the law office of Williams and Woodbridge and was admitted to the bar of the state on October 10, 1854, only a few

weeks after leaving the Harvard Law School. Erastus L. Williams became later "long and favorably known" as judge of the Circuit Court of Cook County. John Woodbridge had a long and successful career at the Chicago bar. Both became lasting friends and warm admirers of Mr. Hitchcock. He was not a mere clerk in their office, but a lawyer who began at once, with the advantage of connection with a successful firm, to feel his way into practice. He remained with this firm two years, with much profit to himself in preparing him to enter with good hope of success into practice on his own account.

In 1856 Mr. Hitchcock had become acquainted with the life and people, the methods of business and of law practice in Chicago, and deciding that the time had come to have an office of his own, he found a partner and established the firm of Hitchcock and Goodwin. For some reason unknown to the writer the partnership continued for one year only. Mr. Hitchcock then became the partner of the well-known and successful Benjamin E. Gallup, the firm name being Gallup and Hitchcock. Mr. Gallup was interested in real estate and real-estate law, and cases having to do with commercial law fell naturally and more and more completely to Mr. Hitchcock. He ordinarily represented the firm in court. The connection with Mr. Gallup continued with success for nine years, till 1866. It was then dissolved. Meantime Mr. Hitchcock had formed an intimate friendship with Charles A. Dupee. The latter had been in 1856–58 principal of Chicago's first high school, which had then been opened in the new high-school building on West Madison, east of Desplaines Street. He had later entered on the practice of law. Both men were of unusual scholarly tastes and attainments. Both were able lawyers. The close friendship they had formed, which was an enduring one, naturally resulted in a partnership which continued to the end of Mr. Hitchcock's life. The firm was known as Hitchcock and Dupee, and was established in 1866. A young man named Evarts, who had been with Gallup and Hitchcock, came into the new office and in 1869 became a member of the firm, which then took the name of Hitchcock, Dupee, and Evarts. Mr. Evarts was interested in patent law and, being encouraged by Mr. Hitchcock to develop his talent for that line of practice, did this with such a growing clientèle that he soon found it was likely to become a successful business by itself. With the approval and encouragement of the older partners, therefore, in 1872 or 1873 he withdrew from the firm and established a patent-law business which he followed for the rest of his life, more than forty years. Meantime another young man, Noble

B. Judah, came into the office and developed qualities which in 1875 made him a member of the firm, which then became Hitchcock, Dupee, and Judah, and so continued to the end of Mr. Hitchcock's life.

As Mr. Hitchcock was twenty-nine years old when he began his independent practice, he was more mature than most young lawyers just starting in business for themselves. He had profited by his experience in four good offices, and had been studying law in offices and law school for five or six years. He had innate gifts for success at the bar. His rise, therefore, was unusually rapid and his success great. In the third quarter of the last century Chicago had a very able bar. Many members of it were men of brilliant attainments and wide reputation. But not many years passed after Mr. Hitchcock entered their ranks before he reached a very high place among them. Judge Williams, in whose office he spent his first two years in Chicago, said of him twenty-six years later: "For this more than a quarter of a century it can be said . . . . Charles Hitchcock had no superior at the bar or upon the bench of this city." John M. Palmer, general, governer, senator, said of him in the *Bench and Bar of Illinois:* "Mr. Hitchcock was, in some respects, one of the ablest lawyers who ever practiced at our bar."

Mr. Hitchcock had hardly begun to practice when he won the most important suit of his career—the suit for the heart and hand of Annie McClure, who became Mrs. Hitchcock in 1860. She was only twenty-one years old, but, though so young, was one of the "old settlers" of Chicago. The father of Mrs. Hitchcock, James McClure, was a native of the north of Ireland, of Scotch-Irish Presbyterian stock. He had come to this country to join an older brother, a Philadelphia architect, and, studying that profession, had assisted in building the Philadelphia customhouse. His health showing signs of failure, he was led by glowing accounts of the invigorating climate of northern Illinois to join the western stream of migration which was already flowing strong in 1837. Brothers had preceded him to Illinois and they chose for him a farm in Lake County, forty miles north of Chicago and six miles west of where Waukegan now stands, and plowed round it a deep furrow to mark its boundaries. With his wife and three children Mr. McClure proceeded by boat to Albany, thence by the Erie Canal to Buffalo, and reached Chicago by way of the Great Lakes, fifteen years before the first railroad from the East had laid its tracks to that city. Had the young architect remained in Chicago he would not only have escaped the toils, privations, and sufferings of Illinois pioneer life of that day, but would certainly have prospered in a profession in which the young

city offered every opportunity for success. But the farm had been bought and awaited him and he had learned farming in his youth, and he went forth to a harder struggle with pioneer conditions than had faced the forefathers of Mr. Hitchcock two hundred years before in the New England wilderness. Mrs. Hitchcock has written interesting reminiscences of that struggle. She tells how the effort to subdue and tame and make productive a wild Illinois prairie farm eighty years ago was

> a battle where high spirit unsupported by vital strength contended with the rude forces of nature on every hand. They could not get help in any task whatever. . . . . There was the ploughing and sowing of the fields, the building of fences, the cutting and hauling of firewood, the care of cattle, and the long journeys to Chicago for every pound of flour, or sugar, or other necessary of life, for the father, while the mother not only made the bread but the yeast that raised it, not only made the soap but leached the ashes necessary for its successful manufacture. She made candles, cured hams, braided rugs, wove rag carpets, made and mended the clothing of her five children, knit their stockings, even made their little shoes out of the tops of their father's boots. . . . . There was the fickle climate, its fierce heats, its piercing winds, the deep snows, often over the fence tops, the mud embargoes of the spring, the long journeys, over forty miles, for every comfort, from a paper of pins to a barrel of flour. And the loneliness of that mother on the hilltop when the father was away, the night coming on, the wolves howling on the edge of the wood, and often the Indians claiming the right to sleep by the kitchen fire as they journeyed home from their sales of furs in Chicago. It was on that lonely hilltop, one night late in April when a snow storm had been howling for three days, that I first saw the light. . . . . The demands on bodily endurance were too great for my father. His malady overcame him and after months of illness he died at the end of six years of pioneer life. Not once had he reaped a good harvest for what he had sown.

Mr. McClure was a rare man, high minded, capable, who would have prospered in the growing young city. He was a student and had brought a select library into the settlement which became the circulating library of the scattered community of farmers. He was also a devout man and brought the first home missionary to Lake County, and when the meetinghouse was built on a corner of his farm, his skilled hands made the pulpit. The missionary and his wife became inmates of his family and so remained after his death.

After two years Mrs. McClure sold the farm and moved with her children, now five in number, to Chicago. On the corner of Jackson and Sherman streets she built two cottages, renting one and occupying the other. Here she remained from 1844 till the arrival of the Michigan Southern Railroad in 1852. Mrs. Hitchcock says: "From others they secured the right of way up to our homestead and there was no resisting them when, in seeking a site for their depot, they decided upon the very spot where my mother had made a home for her little family

on the corner of Jackson and Sherman streets." It would appear from this statement that the first Michigan Southern station was one block north of its present location and that the early home of Mrs. Hitchcock was on the site where the Board of Trade Building now stands.

"So," continue these reminiscences of early Chicago, "once more we were pilgrims and moved, first onto La Salle Street north of Washington, where we lived a few years in a rented house, then buying on the West Side, on the corner of Monroe and Des Plaines streets, where we were one block away from the first high school that came to Chicago." This was the attractive stone structure, where Mr. Dupee was principal, of which Chicago was very proud.

The very first schoolhouse owned by the city was built in 1837 for two hundred dollars on the present site of the *Tribune* Building and continued in use till 1845, when, Dearborn School No. 1. having been built across Madison Street, it was sold for forty dollars, and, according to the school inspectors, "the purchaser had no occasion to congratulate himself on account of his bargain." This was District School No. 1, and in these humble quarters Mrs. Hitchcock began her education, but, with the erection a year or so later of the seventy-five-hundred-dollar Dearborn School just across the street, continued her studies in that fine building. It was so large that many thought there would never be enough children in Chicago to fill it. But at the end of the first year the pupils numbered 543, and after two years it was overcrowded with an attendance approaching 900.

To reach the school the children walked across the open prairie in sight of their mother for most of the half-mile. They were eager in their studies and in their play, as well as in work to help their mother in her difficult struggle. An older sister was soon teaching and the boys were busy out of school hours in a printing office or selling papers. After the removal to the West Side, Annie was prepared to enter the new high school.

It was just at this time, when he had been two years in Chicago, that Charles Hitchcock was opening his law office in the partnership of Hitchcock and Goodwin. By 1860 he was one of the rising young lawyers of the city and married Miss Annie McClure, now grown to womanhood, though younger than Mr. Hitchcock by twelve years. They were married July 10, 1860, by the well-known Dr. R. W. Patterson, pastor of the Second Presbyterian Church, of which the bride was a member. Mr. Hitchcock's family were Unitarian-Congregationalists of the New England type. His wife's religious home, however, became

his also. Their pastor said of him: "Throughout his married life he read the Scriptures and united his heart in prayer with the heart of his wife." The marriage was an exceptionally happy one. The man who knew him best, perhaps, Mr. Dupee, said: "Mr Hitchcock's home life was a most happy one. . . . . His wife, to whom he was most tenderly attached, shared in his intellectual and social tastes."

He seems to have made it his first concern, after his marriage, to provide for himself and his wife a permanent home. He accordingly bought a large lot, nearly or quite a quarter of a block, on the corner of Greenwood Avenue and Forty-eighth Street. Here in the early sixties he built a commodious and comfortable house, and in this pleasant home Mrs. Hitchcock still resides after more than fifty-five years. Not long after the removal to the new house an incident occurred which reflects great honor on Dr. Patterson. Though far removed from his church, Mr. and Mrs. Hitchcock continued to make it their religious home. The pastor and his family paid them occasional visits, the ample grounds furnishing the pastor's children opportunities for play. On one of these visits Dr. Patterson, after assuring Mrs. Hitchcock that he valued most highly their constancy to the old church, said to her that they had come to a new community to which they owed duties and that perhaps she ought to transfer her membership and support to the struggling church in her neighborhood. Thus encouraged by her pastor she became a member of the Hyde Park Presbyterian Church more than fifty years ago. Her husband became an attendant, a liberal supporter, and a useful trustee. After his death his fellow-trustees testified to "his wise counsel in all which concerned the welfare of our church and his generous assistance in its periods of embarrassment and depression," and added, "It is a grateful and pleasant remembrance that one of his last acts was his liberal gift to relieve this society of its burden of debt."

The main work of Mr. Hitchcock's life was that of a lawyer. He had few ambitions beyond his profession. But there was one period of his life when his law practice was interrupted. The state of Illinois previous to 1870 had had two constitutions. The first was the one enacted in August, 1818, under which the state was admitted into the Union. Thirty years later the population had increased from less than 50,000 to about 800,000, and, all the conditions of life having changed, a new, more elaborate, and much improved constitution, framed by the convention of 1847, was adopted by the people by a vote of nearly four to one.

But the development of the state during the twenty-one years following 1848 was even greater than it had been in the thirty preceding years. The population had increased to 2,500,000. The state had become a great manufacturing community, having risen between 1850 and 1870 from the sixteenth to the sixth place in the value of manufactured products. But these years had been pre-eminently the railroad era. In 1848 no railroad had entered the state from the east and there was hardly a mile of road in actual operation except the few miles of the Galena and Chicago Union running west from Chicago. But so astonishing was the change that had taken place before 1870 that Illinois had come to have a greater railroad mileage than any other state in the Union. The whole fabric of business was new. This extraordinary development in population and in economic conditions made the constitution of 1848 an antiquated document in 1869, and a new convention was called to frame a revised constitution.

In the important work of this convention Mr. Hitchcock recognized an opportunity to do an exceptional service to the state, and, accepting a nomination, was elected a member of the convention. The sessions, beginning in December, 1869, continued through five months, thus taking the members from their business for nearly half a year. Mrs. Hitchcock accompanied her husband to Springfield, and they made their home in that city till the convention adjourned in May, 1870.

The sessions were held in the old state capitol. The early meetings were most unpromising. Two rival factions not only nominated but elected temporary chairmen, a proceeding worthy of ten-year-old boys. The only thing that saved the situation was the good sense and good nature of the rival chairmen, who agreed to preside alternately, which they did during the first day. Then three days were spent in an absurd debate as to whether the members should take the oath of office in the form prescribed by the legislative act which provided for the holding of the convention, requiring them to support the constitution of the state. In the end the majority decided to take the oath in a modified form, while the minority took it in the form prescribed by the legislature. The astonishing position taken by the majority was this, that they could not swear to support the constitution of the state without some qualification, since they were to form a new constitution to take its place.

When on the fourth day the convention got down to business, there were two candidates for president—Joseph Medill, editor of the *Chicago Tribune*, and Charles Hitchcock. The choice of the delegates

fell on Mr. Hitchcock, who was elected by a vote of 45 to 40 for Mr. Medill. Years afterward Mr. Medill wrote: "I do not believe that any state constitutional convention was ever more fortunate in the choice of a presiding officer. He seemed to know intuitively where to place any member that he might do the most good. His fine judicial temperament enabled him to keep constant control of the body and make everything move smoothly and successfully. The great success achieved by the convention is due to his skill and abilities as the presiding officer."

There were many able men among the delegates and, under the capable presidency of Mr. Hitchcock, they worked with fidelity, efficiency, and wisdom. The product of their protracted labors was widely acknowledged to be the best state constitution that had, up to that time, been devised in the United States. When submitted to the people a few weeks after its formation, it had a happier fate than that prepared by the Constitutional Convention of 1862, which had been rejected by a large majority. The new constitution of 1870 was adopted in July of that year by popular vote and went into effect in August. If the present effort to form a new constitution is successful, the old one will have served the state for half a century.

The constitution revolutionized the policy of the state in regard to corporations, with its sweeping provisions against special laws, bringing these things under the general laws of the state. Bills could no longer be passed over the governor's veto by a majority vote, but only by a two-thirds vote of all the members in both houses of the legislature. Counties, cities, and other local governments were limited in the amount of taxes they could levy and money they could borrow. The judicial system was reorganized. For the first time the right to vote and the duty of militia service were recognized as the same for white and colored men; and for the first time also it was made the duty of the state to provide "a system of free schools whereby all the children of the state may receive a good common-school education."

Mr. Hitchcock had been influential in working out the new judicial system providing for additional courts and judges. The election of the new judges took place on the same day on which the constitution itself was voted on and adopted. Mr. Hitchcock was nominated as one of the new judges of the Supreme Court. It was, however, fatal to his chances of election that Judge McAllister, well known for his good record as judge of the Recorder's Court, ran against him. One of the newspapers said: "Owing to the fact that the election was held in the

summer; that a light vote was cast; and that he himself was not as widely known throughout the district as his competitor, the Honorable W. R. McAllister, he was defeated."

It was universally recognized by the bar that Mr. Hitchcock was eminently qualified for a seat in the Supreme Court. He had in a very unusual degree the judicial temperament. He was by nature a judge. A great judge declared that he had "a judicial mind, that is, a mind capable of an impartial survey of both sides of the question in contention and of arriving at a just conclusion." He was a great lawyer, but he would have been a greater judge. His wide legal knowledge, his penetrative intellect, his analytical mental processes, his sense of justice, his practical wisdom, all fitted him for distinction on the bench. It was a much greater misfortune for the state than for him that he did not attain judicial honors. He had a large, increasing, and lucrative practice which brought him a competency he would have sacrificed by giving up the bar for the bench. Had his years been prolonged, it is quite certain, however, that the bench would ultimately have claimed him.

The great Chicago fire of 1871 again for a brief period brought Mr. Hitchcock into public life. It was felt that under the distressing circumstances of the times the wisest and most trustworthy citizens must be called on for service. Mr. Medill was made mayor on what was known as the "fireproof ticket." Mr. Hitchcock was elected to the County Board provided for by the new constitution. He drew the short term, one year, but was a most valuable and efficient member, "his great legal experience and practical wisdom coming into admirable service at that time, when, owing to the fire and to the reorganization of the county government, everything was chaos and confusion."

It is said that after the fire the governor called him into consultation as to the best way of granting state aid to the afflicted city and acted on his advice with large advantage to Chicago. Some three million dollars (including interest) which Chicago had advanced for deepening the channel of the Illinois and Michigan Canal was at this time repaid to the city for rebuilding its burned bridges. William B. Ogden and others aided in bringing this about. A sketch of Mr. Hitchcock's life, referring to this period, makes the following extraordinary statement: "His remarkably retentive memory enabled him to furnish information that was regarded as so reliable and authentic that it was accepted in lieu of many deeds destroyed and thus established titles." I have seen this statement made of only one or two other men of that time.

Mr. Hitchcock was a busy lawyer, but his activities were not confined to these political services nor to his office. He was one of the incorporators of the Merchants Loan and Trust Company in 1857. He was a member of the first board of managers of the Chicago Law Institute, and three times in later years served on the board of the Institute. He was one of the founders in 1873–74 of the Chicago Bar Association, which was organized "to maintain the honor and dignity of the profession of law." Mr. Hitchcock was one of the forty-two lawyers who united in calling the meeting at which the Association was formed, and later was one of the six distinguished men who signed the articles of incorporation. The other five were Charles M. Sturges, James P. Root, C. B. Lawrence, Ira O. Wilkinson, and Robert T. Lincoln. He was a prominent member of the Chicago Historical Society, as well as of the Chicago Library Association, an institution which flourished before the great fire. His literary tastes led him into active participation in the Chicago Literary Club, and his social and business connections into membership in the Chicago Club.

Mr. Hitchcock was not a criminal lawyer. He confined his practice to civil cases, and more and more to corporation and commercial law, in which, it was believed, he had no superiors in Chicago. It was said that "the practice which his firm had gained was an enormous one, probably the largest in Chicago" during the seventies of the last century. Among the clients of the firm were banks, insurance companies, great mercantile houses, the Chicago City Railway Company, and the South Park Board. They conducted some of the most important suits following the creation of the park boards. Mr. Hitchcock was instrumental in securing the legislation by which Michigan Avenue was made "a boulevard and drew up the act under which that improvement was made."

It was inevitable that he should be called upon frequently to represent clients in the Supreme Court of the state. He was once brought into an embarrassing situation before that court. He had won a verdict in a lower court which was in plain contradiction to decisions of the higher court in similar cases. The defeated parties naturally took an appeal to the Supreme Court and Mr. Hitchcock found himself compelled to try to persuade that august tribunal to reverse itself. It is hardly necessary to say that he did not succeed.

He had many important cases. I make room for a few only. Within a year after the adoption of the new constitution he carried through the courts a case which established the rule that a city tax collector

could not sell real estate for the non-payment of taxes, the constitution providing that the official authorized to do this must be "some general officer of the county having authority to receive state and county taxes."

In 1874 the Circuit Court of Cook County rendered a decision against the Chicago City Railway Company forfeiting its right to run cars on Indiana Avenue—a judgment of "ouster." The case was carried to the Supreme Court of the state, and Mr. Hitchcock, appearing for the railway company, succeeded in having the decision reversed, and the cars still run on Indiana Avenue.

A little later he won another suit in the same court which secured the construction of the street-car line on Clark Street, south from Randolph, a most important part of the street-car system.

Perhaps the greatest of his cases before the state Supreme Court was the following: The legislature had passed an act "to regulate public warehouses and the warehousing and inspection of grain." This was a law, as the Supreme Court phrased it, "to protect producers and shippers of grain against frauds in warehouses." The owners of an elevator had brought suit in a lower court to have the law declared unconstitutional and had won the case. It was taken to the state Supreme Court and after a full presentation the judges, being unable to decide, ordered that it should be reargued. Mr. Hitchcock was brought in to assist the counsel for the people, and in 1873 the judgment of the lower court was reversed, the law declared constitutional, and the farmers and shippers of grain were permanently protected by an adequate inspection law. There can be no doubt that the inspection laws have been as valuable to Chicago as to the farmers in making that city the great grain-distributing center of the world.

It was high praise that Judge Lawrence of the Supreme Court gave to Mr. Hitchcock when he said: "I have known no member of our profession who has seemed to me more careful to conform his practice to a high standard of professional ethics. . . . . He never sought to lead the court astray in a matter of fact or law. He would not endeavor to withhold from it a knowledge of any fact appearing in the record. He would not, as an advocate, express his personal belief in a legal proposition unless he could do so with entire conscientiousness. He would not cite as an authority an overruled case without stating the fact that it had been overruled. . . . . His ambition in life was purely professional, and was formed upon the highest conception of what a great lawyer ought to be. His ambition he achieved. He won the goal."

Chief Justice Craig said: "His briefs were models of perfection. He never loaded down a case with lengthy printed arguments, but he selected a few strong points and in a clear, convincing manner brought all of his authorities to bear upon them."

Although Mr. Hitchcock was an unusually busy lawyer, he found time for much reading and even study outside the law. It was a close friend who had known him ever since they entered college together who said of him: "Mr. Hitchcock possessed and constantly cultivated an ardent love of literature and the languages. . . . . Not infrequently have I found, upon entering his office, ... that he was employed and deeply interested in the study of some language, like Latin or French, or work of literature which he enjoyed with the keenest relish, and he has told me more than once that whenever his accumulations . . . . had reached such a point as to yield him a satisfactory income, his design was to leave the practice of the law and devote himself . . . . to the study and pursuit of literature and the languages." He was essentially a student. He loved scholarly pursuits. A lover of books, he accumulated a very valuable library of several thousand volumes. His real life was in his home, where he found his wife and his books.

It must not be supposed, however, that he neglected his business for his books. Indeed, his love of literature found inexhaustible material in his legal studies. There is a world of interest to be found in the study of legal cases. Mr. Hitchcock was a lawyer and a student, and much more. It was Judge Williams, whose office he first entered in Chicago, who more than twenty-five years later said that he "was capable of succeeding in almost any field of intellectual labor. In statesmanship or in literature he could have attained like eminence."

His practice grew as his years increased. The firm of Hitchcock and Dupee, later Hitchcock, Dupee, and Judah, prospered. In 1877 a young man, Monroe L. Willard, came into the office and in 1882 or 1883 became a member of the firm, which, after the death of the man who had so long been its head, became Dupee, Judah, and Willard.

Mr. Hitchcock was still a young man with an enlarging business, a growing reputation, increasing legal abilities, with all that these things promised of success and honor, when a latent difficulty with the heart which had long threatened him began to give him serious trouble. He labored on, however, with heroic courage as long as his physicians would permit. It was said of him when approaching fifty years of age: "Personally he is tall, with a large portly figure, and is, altogether, a fine-looking, imposing gentleman." His disease soon began to increase his

weight and he became corpulent, and this became a cause of further physical disability. In 1880 he went abroad with Mrs. Hitchcock in the hope of finding relief. This hope, however, proved vain, and he returned home and died May 7, 1881. In speaking at his funeral his former pastor, Dr. D. S. Johnson, made the following impressive statement: "I have been told there was an incentive for his struggle for life; and what was it? It was the cord of life that ran from his heart to the heart of his aged mother—that mother for whom even as a boy he seemed to feel that he must care; that mother for whom through all these years he had had the very tenderest affection. For her sake, lest it should break her heart if he should die, he resisted death—he still determined to keep his place and do his work. But only a week ago this very day, the news came to him by telegram that the dear, devoted mother had passed away."

Very unusual honors for a man in private life were paid to Mr. Hitchcock after his death. In addition to action taken by the Bar Association, the Historical Society, and other organizations, his death was announced in highly appreciative addresses to the Supreme Court of the state and five lower courts in Chicago. Out of respect for his memory the Supreme Court adjourned. The general assembly of the state paid him the same unusual honor. Perhaps the most touching and illuminating tribute was the unconscious one of a little boy of the neighborhood. His mother found the child lying on his bed "weeping bitterly, and when she asked the cause of his grief, he said, 'I shall never see Mr. Hitchcock again.' "

Thus honored by the strong men of the city and the state and lamented by the children of his neighborhood, Charles Hitchcock passed away at the age of fifty-four, at the meridian of his life and of his powers. His independent professional activity had been restricted to twenty-five years. He might, not unreasonably, have looked forward to another twenty-five years. Had this additional time been given, he would have accomplished more during the second quarter-century than he had during the first. His faculties would have developed greater power. His fame would have increased. His professional triumphs would have multiplied. He would have gone far.

Some months after his death Mrs. Hitchcock issued a memorial volume which contained a brief sketch of her husband's life and various appreciations of him in the addresses before the Bar Association and the courts of Chicago and the state. These appreciations were uttered by men who had been familiar with him since his boyhood or throughout

his life in Chicago. They reveal the extraordinary confidence, esteem, and admiration he commanded. This is the more remarkable because he was not one of the "hail fellow, well met" sort of men. Chief Justice John Marshall had a rollicking, good-humored camaraderie which gave him instant entrance to the hearts of men. Mr. Hitchcock had nothing of this about him on first acquaintance. He was quiet and perhaps seemed to hold himself aloof. At his funeral Dr. Johnson said: "Very many thought him reserved. It was not reserve, but rather a natural timidity . . . . which caused so many to mistake him for a man of cold demeanor. Not so. We who knew him here (in his home) knew there was nothing of coldness about him by nature. Here he seemed to give himself just as he was to his friends."

Indeed, he had a rare capacity for friendship. His partner, Mr. Dupee, said: "He greatly enjoyed the society of his circle of intimate friends and was especially delighted to meet them around his own fireside. His wife, to whom he was most tenderly attached, shared in his intellectual and social tastes. His hospitality at his own home was open handed and, to me, seemed something princely. He had a way of presenting to his guests his house and everything it contained, and this was done in so simple, unaffected, and unostentatious a manner as to charm everyone who came under his roof."

It was said of him: "He had not those qualities which give to men a wide social popularity, but he retained entire to the hour of his death all the friendships he had ever made." D. L. Shorey, who had been his close friend for nearly forty years, said: "I have had many enduring friendships, but I have had no friend truer, nobler, more worthy of remembrance."

Mr. Hitchcock was a man of extraordinary self-command. In scenes of excitement and turmoil he was undisturbed, imperturbable. This was one of the qualities that enabled him to preside so successfully over the sessions of the Constitutional Convention. His friends spoke of his "great equanimity of temper, which enabled him to pass through the most heated trials of difficult cases with a calm and unruffled surface." This was one of the elements of his power.

I cannot forbear quoting the following illuminating testimony of his partner, Mr. Dupee, to his character:

Mr. Hitchcock was a most benevolent man. There was hardly a day in which calls upon his purse and sympathy were not made, and no worthy man or worthy cause ever went away from him neglected. Hundreds of men in this city could point to him as their benefactor and he gave a regular support to most of our public philanthropic institutions. His private life was pure and clean. No taint of dishonor or

dishonesty ever touched him. His word was better than his bond. . . . . Envy, uncharitableness, and such qualities were wholly foreign to his nature. . . . I never knew him to do a little act, or an unkind one.

He was a large-minded, large-hearted, upright man.

This sketch has indicated something of Mr. Hitchcock's ability as a lawyer. He had not, perhaps, the oratorical gifts of some of his contemporaries. He was not pre-eminent as a jury lawyer. It was said of him in a sketch written before his death: "He has a clear voice, a graceful style, and an imposing presence, but he does not deal in emotions at all. . . . . He is logical, clear, and forceable, and will generally win the juror who happens to be of an eminently logical temperament. He argues supremely: but most jurors have feelings as well as reason that must be touched and these he never touches." One other qualification of the highest praise must be made, and it is perhaps a commendation, rather. It was made by Mr. Dupee: "Mr. Hitchcock was not successful in the management of weak cases. He had little facility in making the worse appear the better reason. In order to labor successfully it was necessary for him to thoroughly believe in his case, and then no man worked harder for his client." This, of course, means that he was above the use of base cunning, trickery, or any unworthy expedients to help him to win a weak or bad case. Every man, whether his case is good or bad, has the right and ought to have the right to be represented by counsel. Mr. Hitchcock had cases that could not be successfully defended by fair means, and he did the best he could for his clients. But bad causes did not naturally seek him, as they do some lawyers, as their advocate.

Among the members of the bench and bar he had a most enviable reputation. Judge Williams, before whom he conducted many cases in the Circuit Court, said of him: "*Primus inter pares* is no mean praise at a bar, many of whose members have attained an enviable national reputation, but it was the position universally accorded" to Mr. Hitchcock.

Melville W. Fuller, later chief justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, said: "Charles Hitchcock possessed a mind of singular precision and power. It was in a marked degree a judicial mind, capable of an impartial view of both sides of a question and of arriving at a just conclusion. In his practice he was absolutely fair, never indulged in artifice or concealment, never dealt in indirect methods, but won his victories, which were many, and suffered his defeats, which were few, in the open field face to face with his foe."

It was high praise that was given him by a lawyer who had known him intimately since they entered college together: "He had the faculty of grasping the pivotal points of legal questions presented to him almost intuitively and thereafter brushing aside all those surrounding questions which cluster about a complicated case; and, therefore, perhaps no man at the bar was in the habit of devoting so little attention to accessory points arising on the trial of a cause and confining himself so closely to the main issues at stake." In this respect he resembled Chief Justice Marshall, of whom his biographer, A. J. Beveridge, says: "Marshall's ability to extract from the confusion of the most involved question its vital elements and to state those elements in simple terms was helpful to the court and frankly appreciated by the judges."

John Woodbridge, in whose office Mr. Hitchcock began his career in Chicago, said of him: "He was a lawyer, a man of letters, a man of affairs. . . . . Men paid him an involuntary homage, such as is ever yielded to dignity of character and grandeur of mind. His career at the bar was an uninterrupted success. He came here a stranger, but he advanced rapidly to fame and fortune. . . . . He had a numerous and wealthy clientage and was always concerned with great causes."

That he was a man of affairs was shown in the business instinct which led him to make such an investment as the purchase of the northwest corner of Madison and La Salle streets, part of the ground on which the Hotel La Salle stands, as a permanent holding. He had the business instinct to foresee its certain and progressive increase in value.

One of Mr. Hitchcock's outstanding charactersistics was the deep interest he took in young men, particularly in young lawyers. There were many testimonies to this effect by those whom he had advised, encouraged, and helped. This was recalled by one of his partners: "Especially did he find time to aid young men—young lawyers who came to him for advice and assistance, as they very frequently did. He always aided them generously and freely, and they found in him a real friend. His thoughtful consideration for others was shown in his treatment of the young men in the office, the clerks, and the students. He suggested their courses of reading, both legal and miscellaneous. He was solicitous for their health, for their advancement, and that their labors should be of service to themselves as well as to him." Speaking before the Bar Association for "the younger members of our profession," F. O. Lyman told of his first meeting with Mr. Hitchcock when he arrived in Chicago, a stranger: "He asked me what qualifications I had, what studies I had pursued, what preparation I had made

for my life-work. . . . . He earnestly impressed on me not to grow discouraged with the days and years of waiting, drudgery, and toil which must be endured . . . . and to ever keep in mind the ideal lawyer every student pictures to himself while reading Blackstone, Kent, and the lives of the great lawyers."

The writer has been impressed by the estimate of him expressed by John H. Thompson at the Bar Association meeting: "As I recollect him when he came here, he presented very manifestly the same striking features of character which he always afterward displayed—a mind of remarkable clearness and quickness, and a mature, vigorous and sound judgment. . . . . He had an eminently judicial mind, and he would have adorned any bench upon which he might have been placed. But the glory of the bench was not needed for him. His glory was rather needed for the bench."

Judge Blodgett happily summed up his characteristics: "As a lawyer he responded to the highest ideals of our noble profession. As a citizen he was ever patriotic, public spirited, and wise. As a friend he was true to the noblest impulses of our nature."

Since the death of her husband Mrs. Hitchcock has continued to live in the home to which they went soon after their marriage in 1860. It is therefore one of the old homesteads of the city. It satisfies one's idea of a homestead. It is not part of a brick block, nor is it closely shut in by other houses. It is a pleasant and commodious frame house, standing far back from the street in the midst of grounds two hundred and fifty feet in length. When it was built it was in the suburb of Kenwood, far south of the city limits. Now the city limits are many miles south of the Hitchcock homestead, so far south, indeed, as to leave it almost in the center of the town, measuring from north to south. It is one of the pleasantest parts of Chicago.

With many gifts of mind and heart, Mrs. Hitchcock has always been equally at home and equally welcome in the humblest and the highest circles. She was one of the organizers of the Fortnightly Club, which has numbered among its members many of the foremost women of Chicago. She has long been a member of the Kenwood Club, and has engaged in the multiplied activities of the Chicago Women's Club. She has taken a warm interest in Berea College, Kentucky.

The establishment of the University of Chicago in 1889–92 early attracted her attention and awakened her interest. Mrs. Hitchcock had all her husband's interest in the welfare of young men seeking a preparation for the work of life. Having no family of her own, she

determined to satisfy this interest in fulfilling a purpose which had grown up in her mind to build a memorial of her husband which should embody his devotion to young men just entering into life. The new University offered itself to her as a place where her purpose could be best carried out.

On December 12, 1899, President Harper informed the Trustees that Mrs. Hitchcock desired to build a memorial to her husband and was prepared to give the University a considerable sum for this purpose. On the first of January, 1900, she proffered the University for the purposes she had in mind $200,000. These purposes finally took the following form: The sum of $25,000 is set aside for the endowment of a traveling fellowship in Greek to be known as the Daniel L. Shorey Fellowship, in commemoration of the long friendship between her husband and Mr. Shorey. The sum of $150,499 was used in the construction of a dormitory for young men students of the University, to be known as the Charles Hitchcock Hall, and $25,000 was designated as a sustentation fund, the income to be used for maintaining the memorial hall "in first-class condition and repair."

The plans for the Charles Hitchcock Hall were prepared by Mr. Dwight H. Perkins, architect, after he had studied student dormitory buildings in this and other countries. The corner stone was laid by Mrs. Hitchcock herself on June 15, 1901, Professor Paul Shorey, head of the Department of Greek in the University, making the address. The June, 1901, Convocation was a great celebration, marking the tenth anniversary of the founding of the University. The exercises continued through five days. During this time the corner stones of six buildings were laid; on June 15 those of the Press Building and the Charles Hitchcock Hall, and on June 18 those of Hutchinson Commons, the Mitchell Tower, the Reynolds Clubhouse and Mandel Assembly Hall. The founder of the University, Mr. Rockefeller, was present, an interested participant in all these exercises.

The Charles Hitchcock Hall was completed in September, 1902, and was occupied by students at the opening of the Autumn Quarter, October 1. It is the largest of the residence halls thus far provided, having not only rooms for ninety-three students, but, in addition, a club-room, infirmary, breakfast-room, and a large and beautiful library. It also provides a room for the clergymen who preach every Sunday morning in Mandel Hall, this room being known as "the preachers' room." It has been furnished by Mrs. Hitchcock, some of the furniture having been brought by her parents when they migrated to Illinois in 1847.

Among the attractive features of the building is the cloister running along the south front and uniting the five divisions of the hall.

One of the most interesting things connected with the building and subsequent history of the hall is the deep and increasing interest manifested in it by Mrs. Hitchcock. She gave much attention to the making of the plans. The library was equipped by her with a large and valuable collection of books and its walls were adorned by her with portraits and other works of art. Over the fireplace hangs the portrait of Mr. Hitchcock. Much of the furniture of this room, as well as that of the University "preachers' room," was contributed by her. A series of architectural photographs adorn the walls of the cloister, an added illustration of Mrs. Hitchcock's interest, taste, and munificence. She takes a great interest in the students who occupy and always fill the hall, and frequently meets them at afternoon teas in the library. The thought, time, attention, and gifts she has lavished on the hall and its students during the past seventeen years are evidence of the large place it has had in her life and illustrate the overflowing good will and bounty of her nature. She has made the memorial of her husband not an erection of dead stone but a living monument eloquent of human feeling and affection.

In presenting the resolutions of the Chicago Bar Association on the death of Mr. Hitchcock before the Appellate Court, William C. Grant said: "It has been said that the life of a lawyer who devotes himself strictly to his profession and its practice leads to fewer permanent results which the world retains after his death than almost any other learned profession." It is not so in the case of Charles Hitchcock. When Mrs. Hitchcock put the accumulations of his quarter of a century of business activity into Hitchcock Hall and the Greek Fellowship, she transformed them into great intellectual and spiritual influences which will bless succeeding generations of young men, and through them the world itself, as long as our civilization endures.

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sedentary occupation and returned home. He was not welcomed there and his father again apprenticed him, against his will, to a mason. He probably concluded that there was slight prospect of success for a mason in the Vermont of that day and, in some way, released himself from his apprenticeship and again returned home. It is to be inferred that his father now washed his hands of his youngest son and gave him to understand that he was at liberty to carve out his fortunes in his own way. Thus encouraged to choose for himself, he apprenticed himself to a harness-maker and entered with interest on the learning of that trade. He was now seventeen years old and worked faithfully and with daily increasing facility in an employment which he liked. At the end of a year, however, his master sold out his business, and with it the services of his apprentice. The purchaser claimed the apprentice as a part of the transaction. It was then that young Cobb showed the independence and acumen that go far to explain his later success. He was a mere boy, but he said at once to the new owner: "In this case the nigger don't go with the plantation," and insisted that if he continued with him it must be for the payment of satisfactory wages. It is evident that he had so far mastered the trade that his services were valuable, for he carried his point and continued in the same shop as a paid apprentice. Filling out the period of his apprenticeship and becoming master of his trade and of himself, he continued to work as a journeyman harness-maker in Montpelier, South Hardwick, and other places. Wages must have been very small. Mr. Cobb was not a money spender, yet when he reached the age of twenty-one his accumulations reached the sum of only sixty dollars.

His father and Oliver Goss had sold their paper-mill and Mr. Goss had been west and invested in lands, and, returning to Montpelier, had awakened such an interest in that new world just opening to settlement that a company of adventurers was preparing to accompany him in a migration to the prairies of Illinois. It was, perhaps, in this very year, 1833, that the movement from the middle and eastern states to the new west began to assume real magnitude. What caused this movement is an interesting question. Perhaps the greatest cause of all was the powerful appeal of the boundless, fertile fields of a new world to the imagination of the adventurous. It was their country, unoccupied, inviting settlement, and with unknown possibilities of material success. Indiana and Illinois had recently been admitted to the Union. The northern sections were without white inhabitants and invited pioneer settlers. The Black Hawk War had, in 1832, opened the northern half

of Illinois to safe and unrestricted settlement. Vague rumors about a hamlet called Chicago, which had a promise of possible future development, appealed with increasing power to adventurous young men.

When, therefore, his father's old partner returned from his exploring expedition in Illinois with glowing accounts of the country and of the new settlement near the foot of Lake Michigan and began to gather a company to make their homes on the lands he had selected forty miles southwest of Chicago, young Cobb caught fire and determined to make his way to this new world. But it was not the fertile prairies that attracted him. He was not a farmer, but a harness-maker, and his eye was fixed on the village by the lake, where he believed there might be a promising opening for a man of his calling. He learned that Chicago was on the main line of travel by which immigrants entered the new state, that it was the place where they refitted for their farther progress, and was already a center of trade for the surrounding country. It ought to be a good place for a man who was master of an industry so essential to such a town and country as harness-making. To Chicago, therefore, he determined to go. His father strongly opposed his purpose; but he was now of age, his own master, making his own way, and he would not be dissuaded from carrying out his new plan. His father refused to assist him, and sixty dollars was the total amount of his savings. There was no time to earn more, as Mr. Goss and his company were ready to start. With the recklessness of youth he decided to enter on this "hazard of new fortunes" and undertake to make his way through the thousand miles of travel and all the difficulties of starting life in a strange place with this pitifully inadequate capital.

The company must have started early in April. They made their way first to Albany. Apparently they were traveling by wagon, being farmers who would need horses and wagons in their new home. At Albany young Cobb left them and went by boat on the Erie Canal to Buffalo. On the way some thief stole part of his money, and when he applied for passage to Chicago on a lake boat he had only seven dollars in his pocket. He made known his circumstances to the captain of the schooner "Atlanta," who finally agreed to take him to Chicago as a deck passenger if he would board himself and, after purchasing necessary food, turn over for his passage all the money he had left. Thereupon he bought a small ham, six loaves of bread, and secured a bedtick which he filled with shavings and, thus provided for the voyage, turned over every penny he had left, being four dollars, to the captain. It is probable that he also engaged to make himself useful about the ship

when the captain needed such help as he could give. The voyage ought to have taken about three weeks; but stormy weather came on and the ship was delayed. The voyage was prolonged to five weeks. How young Cobb survived the cold and storms in his bed on deck during the last week in April and the whole of May, it is hard to understand. He could hardly have been rigidly restricted to the open upper deck. It is quite impossible to understand how one small ham and six loaves of bread, intended to last three weeks, could have kept a young fellow of twenty-one, with a healthy appetite, alive for thirty-five days. Perhaps the explanation may be found in the fact that the ship encountered such a succession of storms that the Green Mountain landsman did not crave food. Or, there may have been more than one —we know there was one—good Samaritan on the "Atlanta."

The ship reached Chicago on the twenty-ninth of May. There was no harbor, and a sand bar across its mouth prevented ships from entering the Chicago River. The "Atlanta" therefore came to anchor, perhaps half a mile offshore, and the passengers and their baggage were taken ashore in canoes and lighters. One can imagine the dismay of young Cobb when told by the captain that he would not be allowed to land till he had paid three dollars more for his passage. He had already given the captain his last cent, and one cannot help but wonder why he was detained. He probably could have reached shore at night by swimming. But he had in his baggage a valuable kit of tools which now formed his entire capital, the only means by which he could make his way in this wilderness country. This precious possession he could not leave. He had doubtless told the captain that he had the tools of his trade with him. They could readily be exchanged for money. Perhaps the captain coveted them and offered to set the boy ashore if he would leave his tools. But this he could not do. He was held a prisoner for three days, with the promised land in sight and no way to reach it in possession of his few but invaluable goods.

As he looked toward the shore during those long days, what did he see? Just two years later the Gale family, from their ship anchored in about the same place, saw this: "Within sight of those on the vessel were countless numbers of Indian wigwams and their dusky occupants, while dark-skinned braves were paddling in the lake. Along the shore was to be seen a succession of low sand hills, partly covered with a scrubby growth of cedars, junipers, and pines. . . . . About opposite where the brig lay, not far from the north bank of the river," was the old Kinzie house, a small one-story building. "Near the south bank of

the river, but a few hundred feet from the lake, stood Fort Dearborn, consisting of some half-dozen barracks, officers' quarters, and other buildings, with a blockhouse in the southwest angle, all constructed of wood and surrounded by high, pointed pickets placed closely together, which, with the buildings, were well whitewashed. Adjoining the fort, near its northwest corner, was a small, circular, stone lighthouse. Around these clustered a few cabins." Such was the far from inviting or promising view of Chicago which the prisoner saw from the deck of his prison ship. On the third day his good Samaritan appeared. A fellow-passenger seems to have revisited the ship for some purpose, and, seeing him still on board and finding out what the trouble was, loaned the necessary three dollars and saw him and his baggage safely ashore. The bed of shavings was taken along. Nothing could more convincingly prove the poverty of the owner, his economy, his habit of saving, and his purpose to get on, than the fact that this continued to be his bed, with occasional replenishings, no doubt, for the next two years.

Mr. Cobb landed in Chicago on the first day of June, 1833. Judge John Dean Caton, who was of the same age as Mr. Cobb and who arrived in Chicago only a few weeks later, about the end of June, the town having, however, grown considerably meantime, says of the village when he first saw it: "There were then not two hundred people here. I was an old resident of six weeks' standing before two hundred and fifty inhabitants could be counted to authorize a village incorporation under the general laws of the state. . . . . Chicago had no streets except on paper; the wild grass grew and the wild flowers bloomed where the courthouse square was located; the pine woods bordered the lake north of the river, and the east sides of both branches of the river were clothed with dense shrubbery forests to within a few hundred feet of their junction. Then the wolves stole from these covers by night and prowled through the hamlet, hunting for garbage around the back doors of our cabins."

A few weeks after Mr. Cobb's arrival in Chicago a Mr. J. P. Hatheway made a survey and took a census of the hamlet, and reported that there were 43 houses and less than 100 men, women, and children in them. John S. Wright also took a census in 1833 and his statement agrees with that of Mr. Hatheway. During the months of June, July, and August, 1833, there was an unprecedented increase in the number of buildings and of inhabitants in anticipation of the great treaty council with the Indians arranged for September of that year. It is estimated that, at the date of young Cobb's arrival off the bar, June 29, there

were not 50 permanent white inhabitants in the place. There were a few soldiers, a very few, in Fort Dearborn, and many Indians and half-breeds living in their temporary camps. Charles Fenno Hoffman was in the village during the early autumn, and he wrote to his paper, the *New York American*, "Four-fifths of the population of this place have come in since last spring: the erection of new buildings during the summer has been in the same proportion"; so that the coming of Mr. Cobb marked the beginning of the evolution from a mere frontier settlement into a growing town. He found a few log houses, three or four of which were used as stores, and in two or three of which travelers could find entertainment. There were no sidewalks. On the north side of the river was the log house of the Kinzies, the pioneer settlers, with the huts of two half-breeds and others near by. On the west side, at the forks of the river, where some insisted the town ought to be built, were a few log structures. East of State Street was the government reservation, at the north end of which, near the river, stood Fort Dearborn. The few stores were on or near South Water Street. Madison Street was out on the prairie, and no one then lived so far from the town, which, what there was of it, clung to the river. There was not a frame building in the place, though some of the log houses had been covered with split clapboards.

The first frame house built in Chicago seems to have been the Green Tree Tavern, and James Kinzie was just starting it when young Cobb, without a cent in his pocket, landed in the village. This was also the first hotel originally intended and planned for a hotel, and, strange to say, it was built on Lake Street a block west of the south branch of the river. It presented an opportunity for immediate employment, and the impecunious stranger, crossing Mark Beaubien's floating bridge at Lake Street, applied for work. He was hired to boss the job and in this way began at once to earn enough to discharge his small debt to the good Samaritan who released him from imprisonment on the ship, to pay his board, and to accumulate a small fund for the next step in his career. So many myths have grown up around this first job of Mr. Cobb's that it is now quite impossible to tell the story as it occurred. All accounts agree that he knew nothing of carpentering, but in his dire need of a job said nothing of this to Mr. Kinzie. All agree that Mr. Kinzie made no complaint when he paid him off. But whether he earned $1.75 a day or $2.75 and board, and whether Mr. Kinzie paid him $40 or $60, whether the building was finished under his superintendence or whether a real carpenter came along and superseded him

by convincing the owner that Cobb was no carpenter and offering to take his place for fifty cents a day less, these things are uncertain. I have a suspicion that, like every other Vermont boy, part of whose life had been spent on a farm, he was able to wield a hammer, saw, and plane with some skill, though he was not a carpenter; and all his subsequent life proved that he knew how to "boss" a job. But his first venture proved his resourcefulness, temporarily set him on his feet, and gave him a little time to study his surroundings.

His second venture illustrated his unusual talent in discovering chances for profitable business and his courage in improving them. It must be remembered that he was a boy, just turned twenty-one, that his early advantages had been few, and that he was a working man who had never been in business for himself. He had no means for setting up a harness-shop, but was intent on finding ways and means to begin that business which he saw would be profitable. Immigrants were now beginning to pass through Chicago in increasing numbers. Mr. Cobb found that they came stocked up with articles they had been assured they could sell to the Indians at a large profit. By the time they reached Chicago, however, they needed money, were anxious to dispose of these stores, but could not afford the time to go out and look for Indian customers. This was one fact in the situation. The other fact was that a great council with the Indians had been arranged for September of that year, 1833, at which the government proposed to purchase their lands and arrange for their transfer beyond the Missouri. A large gathering of Indians was in prospect. In these two facts the young man saw his opportunity.

As the wagons of the immigrants came in, he met them and, offering cash they greatly needed for what he had learned Indians would buy, found willing sellers. The Indians were already present in considerable numbers, and others came in a rapidly increasing multitude. They gathered from every point of the compass—Chippewas, Ottaways, and Pottawatamies—till thousands were assembled in and about the hamlet. Some estimated their numbers as high as seven or eight thousand. And they had money from the annual government payments. They were further enriched by a generous distribution of the new annuities arranged in the treaty. Young Cobb, with the remarkable versatility he possessed, turned auctioneer, and, instead of peddling his stores about, auctioned them off to eager crowds of natives and half-breeds. The Indians remained for a month or six weeks, and the young trader reaped a golden harvest. This successful venture illustrates the genius

for business with which nature endowed him. What his profits were is not known, but they were such that he decided to build his own shop and begin business as a harness-maker. Seeing that the day of log stores was over in the now growing town (there were 153 frame buildings erected in 1833), he would have a frame store of his own.

Meantime important changes had taken place in the little settlement. In August, 1833, the citizens decided by a vote of eleven to one to incorporate the "village" of Chicago. On August 15 an election for officers of the new village was held and twenty-eight votes were cast. It was in this election that the twenty-one-year-old young man, if Mr. Gale is right, cast his first vote. Thirteen of the twenty-eight voters were candidates for office.

The nearest sawmill was at Plainfield, about forty miles southwest of Chicago, and there Mr. Cobb went and bought the lumber for his store. This was in the autumn of 1833. He hired a wagon and three yoke of oxen in Plainfield and, driving himself, started with his lumber for Chicago. When night came on, he slept in the wagon under a shelter of boards. Before morning heavy rain began to pour down. It continued after he started on his way. The road became deep with mud. He threw off part of his load and went on. The rain continued. He threw off more lumber and struggled on. The rain settled down into a three days' storm. The prairie became a morass. When on the fourth day he reached the Des Plaines, it was an impassable torrent. Here, twelve miles from Chicago, he threw off the rest of his load, turned the oxen toward home, and left them to find their way back—which they did. Later he recovered his scattered lumber and built a two-story house and store on West Lake Street, opposite the Green Tree Tavern, where he had learned enough carpentering to enable him now to oversee his own construction work, if not to do most of it himself. Renting the upper floor, he prepared to open his harness-shop.

To begin in a small way did not require much capital, but his building had cost so much that he did not have the little that was required. He had made a rule, to which he adhered through life, not to borrow money nor go in debt. It is believed that he broke this rule only two or three times in the course of his long life. Its observance helped to make him the rich man he came to be, but it was sometimes inconvenient and costly. It was costly at this juncture. At Plainfield he had again met Oliver Goss, his father's old partner, the man with whose company he started west. The two now formed a partnership under the firm name of Goss and Cobb. Reports differ as to the amount of

money Mr. Goss invested. One story fixes it at thirty dollars. The highest sum named is sixty-five dollars. This will indicate the very humble beginning in business Mr. Cobb made. The business was really his. Mr. Goss, though mentioned first in the firm name, was really a silent partner, living forty miles away, near Plainfield, probably anxious about his investment. He need not have been. The stream of settlers increased in volume. The harness-maker prospered exceedingly and at the end of a year dissolved the partnership, returning to Mr. Goss the full sum of his original investment and two hundred and fifty dollars' profit, "the best streak of luck he [Mr. Goss] ever had."

I think it may be considered a part of the story of Mr. Cobb's life if I try to tell here what the year 1833, the year of his arrival, meant to Chicago. In the first place, it was the year of its incorporation as a village and the appointment of village officers who began to lay out streets and plan for the improvements of civilized life. Next, the great council with the Indians provided for their removal and the immediate opening to settlement of 20,000,000 acres of the richest land in the world, in northern Illinois and southern Wisconsin, assuring a future for the new village, the greatness of which no man then dreamed. In this year also the general government began the improvement of the harbor, cutting through the sand bar at the mouth of the river, this work being so furthered by a great flood in the spring following that for the first time lake commerce found entrance to the Chicago River. In 1833 the first newspaper, the *Chicago Democrat*, was established. The year was, therefore, a year of unusual importance as well as interest in the history of Chicago.

Very few men who became prominent in the future of the new community were residents of the town when Mr. Cobb arrived. Among them were Gurdon S. Hubbard, George W. Dole, P. F. W. Peck, and Philo Carpenter. Eli B. Williams preceded him by a few weeks, and John D. Caton, afterward Chief Justice of the State Supreme Court, came a few weeks after Mr. Cobb. During that busy summer came also Jabez K. Botsford, Charles Cleaver, Edward H. Haddock, Walter Kimball, and a dozen other men who rose to prominence. They found themselves in very crowded quarters. In the first old settlers' reception given by the Calumet Club in 1879, Judge Caton said: "I think I can count twenty, at least [present] who were here forty-six years ago, at that memorable birth. . . . . There were seven beds in the attic in which fourteen of us slept that summer. . . . . Edward H. Haddock knows who slept with me in that attic."

Mr. Cobb had not been a year in business before it became apparent to him that the center of trade in the new town would be on the south side; and not long after the dissolution of his first partnership, he prepared to move east across the river. But before he did so, an interesting incident occurred which he has himself related:

> I arrived at Chicago in the spring of 1833. In October of the same year I was occupying my new shop opposite the hotel, in the building of which my first dollar was earned in Chicago. Standing at my shop one afternoon talking with a neighbor, our attention was attracted by the arrival at the hotel of a settler's wagon from the east. With my apron on and my sleeves rolled up, I went with my neighbor to greet the weary travelers and to welcome them to the hospitality of Fort Dearborn, in accordance with the free and easy customs of "high society" in those days. We learned that the travelers were the Warren family, from Westfield, New York, bound for the settlement of Warrenville, Illinois, where a relative had preceded them about six months previously. There were several young women in the party, two of them twin sisters whom I thought particularly attractive, so much so that I remarked to my friend, after they had departed, that when I was prosperous enough so that my pantaloons and brogans could be made to meet I was going to look up those twin sisters and marry one of them or die in trying.

The sequel of this story is told by E. O. Gale in his reminiscences and may as well come in here as later.

> As soon as he was able to support a wife he married one of the twin daughters of Colonel Daniel Warren. . . . . Jerome Beecher married the other sister. Cobb thought that he married Maria and Beecher always believed that he himself married Mary, but they only knew what the girls told them, for the sisters so closely resembled each other and dressed so exactly alike that it required intimate acquaintance to distinguish them. They purchased their millinery of (my) mother, and she never could tell whether she was waiting on Mrs. Cobb or Mrs. Beecher.

For the latter, Beecher Hall at the University is named.

It was perhaps in 1835 that Mr. Cobb transferred his growing business to more commodious quarters at 171 Lake Street, which was near the business center on the South Side. He remained in the new location for many years, devoting himself to his business with a diligence and skill that not only attracted wide attention but commanded growing success. He was interested in the life of the new community and entered into every phase of it with all the earnestness of his alert and energetic nature. On October 7, 1835, S. B. Cobb, P. F. W. Peck, J. K. Botsford, and four others signed their names as the first members of the Pioneer Hook and Ladder Company, and Mr. Cobb was always one of the first at every fire. In the first Chicago directory, issued in 1839, his name appears as saddle, bridle, harness, and trunk maker, 171 "lake st." He made about everything the town and country

needed that could be made of leather, except boots and shoes. Among other things he made the fire buckets which every householder was required to keep in the front hall of his dwelling. There were to be two, at least, in every building. They were to be present also at every fire. They were all made by Mr. Cobb. Sometime after 1879 Mr. Gale's father took one of the two he had left from those ancient days to one of the old settlers' receptions at the Calumet Club. "Alighting from the carriage with it, Mr. Cobb, who was one of the reception committee, rushed to father and took it from him with the remark, 'I made that, Gale, and I am glad to see it.' 'I am happy to present it to you, Mr. Cobb,' said father. . . . . Cobb took as much pride and satisfaction in displaying his handiwork to his friends and the guests as a young lady would in showing a pretty pattern of embroidery."

The sign above his shop read:

SADDLE AND HARNESS MANUFACTORY

Cash Paid for Hides

S. B. COBB

"In front, on a post, was a white horse in a full canter, headed for the prairie." The proprietor was so full of activity and energy that young Gale "named our hustling harness-maker 'Steamboat Cobb.'"

Chicago celebrated the Fourth of July, 1836, by officially "breaking ground" for the digging of the Illinois and Michigan Canal. A party went down to Bridgeport on a small steamboat, Mr. Cobb being one of the passengers. On the return trip a crowd of hoodlums, disgruntled at being refused passage on the crowded boat, attacked the excursionists with a shower of stones, breaking cabin windows and injuring some of the passengers. The captain drew as near to the shore as possible and a number of citizens, some of whom later became prominent men, landed, attacked their assailants, arrested some, and dispersed the rest. Among the foremost in the counter attack were Ashbel Steele, later made sheriff, S. B. Cobb, Gurdon S. Hubbard, S. F. Gale, Mark Beaubien, and John H. Kinzie.

When there was anything doing, Mr. Cobb was usually on hand. A few years later the Chicago Cavalry was organizing and he was made third lieutenant. He was indefatigable in his business, but his superabundant vitality led him to throw himself ardently into the larger life of the town. Long John Wentworth, in one of his diverting

addresses on early Chicago, gave the following illuminating characterization of Mr. Cobb. Answering the question whether Chicago had no society men in the early days, he said:

> Our early settlers were generally society men, but they never let society interfere with their business. . . . . I notice a gentleman here who was a model of a society man. He was at his place of business promptly every day and at parties every night. After sunset he would go farther to attend a party, dance longer, and be back at his place of business earlier the next morning than any man in the city. He has lived in pleasure and to profit. He brought nothing here; his notes never went to protest; and now he has nearly means enough to pay the debts of almost all our modern society men. If the society men of these days would but follow his example, work as well as play, save as well as earn, to use a granger phrase, they would find a great deal more corn on their Cobb.

But Long John in another address gave quite another side of Mr. Cobb's life and activities, saying:

> Not feeling able to sustain the expense of a whole pew, I engaged one in partnership with an unpretending saddle- and harness-maker, S. B. Cobb, who, by a life of industry, economy, and morality, has accumulated one of the largest fortunes in our city, and still walks our streets with as little pretense as when he mended the harness of the farmers who brought the grain to this market from our prairies. The church building in those days was considered a first-class one and we had a first-class pew therein, and the annual expense of my half of the pew was only $12.50 more than it would have been in our Saviour's time.

Mr. Wentworth evidently believed in a free gospel. The addresses from which I have quoted leave it uncertain just where he and Mr. Cobb attended church together. The connection points plainly to the First Baptist Church, which Mr. Wentworth often attended and of the pastor of which, Rev. M. G. Hinton, he speaks highly. This is rendered still more probable by the fact that Mr. Cobb married the daughter of a Baptist family. He found means to cultivate the acquaintance of the fair Warren sisters and in 1840 married Maria, and, probably, became with her an attendant at the Baptist Church. He was, however, later an adherent of the Second Presbyterian Church and, for a time, one of its trustees.

The hamlet which in 1833 presented "a most woebegone appearance, even as a frontier town of the lowest class," and which became an incorporated village toward the end of that year, grew so amazingly that four years later, in 1837, it was reorganized as a city. Speculation in real estate became rampant. Booms grew and flourished and burst. Good times, making speculators rich, were succeeded by panics which reduced most of them to poverty. Few men were able to escape the speculative craze of that first quarter of a century; but Mr. Cobb was

one of that fortunate number. His rule not to borrow money and not to go in debt stood him in good stead. He had, by nature apparently, a keen business mind. The untrained harness-maker was being trained very rapidly by what he saw about him in the meteoric rise and the sudden and usually irretrievable fall of the hordes of speculators who crowded the city. He continued to attend with growing business skill to his expanding trade; but the amazing growth of the city made a profound impression on his mind. He believed in the future of Chicago, and as often as a boom burst and prices fell to the vanishing point, he invested the growing profits of his business in what he believed to be choice pieces of property. He bought what he had the money to pay for, so that panics had no terrors for him. He did not buy real estate to sell. He came to believe in a great future value for Chicago property. He made his purchases, therefore, when the speculators were compelled to sell their holdings, and he made them as permanent investments to be improved, as he was able, with substantial blocks of buildings.

The original school lands of Chicago, beginning at State and Madison streets, ran west twelve blocks to Halsted Street, and south twelve blocks, comprising one hundred and forty-four blocks. They are worth today more than $100,000,000, but were practically given away in 1833, when one hundred and forty blocks out of the hundred and forty-four were sold for almost nothing, the amount realized from the sale being $38,865. In 1835 the immensely valuable wharfing privileges were also "sold for a song," the leases extending till the year 2834, nine hundred and ninety-nine years. These operations, which made many investors rich, took place while Mr. Cobb was still in poverty and was taking the first steps to establish himself in business. One of his earliest opportunities for profitable real-estate investment came in 1839. In that year the general government subdivided the Fort Dearborn Reservation into lots, the greater part of which were immediately sold for what they would bring. Chicago had hardly begun to recover from the disastrous panic of 1837, and real-estate values were greatly depressed. Buyers were few; but there were men who had confidence in the future of Chicago, and among them was Mr. Cobb. He was beginning to get on his feet, and, having some money in the bank, bought two of these lots on the southwest corner of Michigan Avenue and Lake Street for $516. On these lots he built his first residence, and the directory of 1843 records him as living at 75 Michigan Avenue. A few years later this corner was no longer residence property and he removed a block or two farther south.

Though devoted to his business, Mr. Cobb was not unmindful of his political duties. He was an enthusiastic Whig in politics and in 1840 took an active interest in the election of General Harrison to the presidency. He was appointed a delegate to the great Whig convention of that year at the state capital. A delegation of about seventy made the journey from Chicago to Springfield. In telling the story Charles Cleaver, who came to Chicago the same year with Mr. Cobb (1833), says:

> Great preparations were made. We secured fourteen of the best teams in town, got new canvas covers made for the wagons, and bought four tents. We also borrowed the government yawl—the largest in the city—had it rigged up as a two-masted ship, set it on the strongest wagon we could find, and had it drawn by six splendid gray horses. Thus equipped, with four sailors on board and a six-pound cannon to fire occasional salutes, making quite an addition to our cavalcade of fourteen wagons, we went off with flying colors. . . . . Major General, then Captain, Hunter, was our marshal, and the whole delegation was chosen from our best class of citizens.

Political excitement ran very high, and it was known that the progress of the delegation might be resisted by force. But this prospect did not make the project any less attractive to men like Gurdon S. Hubbard, Mr. Cleaver, Mr. Cobb, and Captain Hunter. At the crossing of the river south of Joliet the expected trouble came. They were armed, and the future major general directed every shotgun and pistol to be loaded, but also ordered that no one should fire a shot till he gave the word of command. Mr. Cleaver continues:

> When we reached the ford we found a party of two hundred or three hundred men and boys assembled to dispute our passage. However, we continued our course, surrounded by a howling mob, and part of the time amid showers of stones thrown from the adjoining bluff, until we came to a spot where two stores were built—one on either side of the street—and then we came to a halt, as they had tied a rope from one building to the other. . . . . Seeing us brought to a stand, the mob redoubled their shouts and noise from their tin horns, kettles, etc. General Hunter, riding to the front, took in the situation at a glance. It was either forward or fight. He chose the former, and gave the word of command, knowing it would be at the loss of our masts in the vessel. And sure enough, down came the fore-and-aft topmast with a crash, inciting the crowd to increased violence, noise, and tumult. One of the party got so excited that he snatched a tin horn from a boy and struck the marshal's horse. When he reached for his pistols the fellow made a hasty retreat into his store. After proceeding a short distance, we came to the open prairie, and a halt was ordered for repairs. It took less than half an hour for our sailors to go aloft, splice the masts, and make all taut again. Then it became our turn to hurrah, which we did with a will, and were molested no further. . . . . This was democracy in '40—we were Whigs.

However, Mr. Cleaver acknowledges that, "with the exception above mentioned, we met with nothing but kindness the whole of our trip." But on the return journey they went by another route.

In 1847 Mr. Cobb was still a young man. But at that time almost all the business men of Chicago were young. Perhaps thirty-five, which was Mr. Cobb's age, would be a fair average for the whole body. These young men, bent on the improvement of the shipping facilities of the city, interested themselves in arranging for the holding of the great River and Harbor Convention of 1847. It was held under a great tent in the courthouse square of Chicago. Mr. Cobb was a member of the Committee of Arrangements. The work of the committee was extraordinarily successful. Though the city's population did not reach 17,000, it was estimated that 20,000 strangers gathered to attend the convention. The number of delegates alone is variously reported at from 3,000 to 10,000, and among them were many who then or later were the leading men of the nation. It was declared to be the largest deliberative body ever assembled. Its object was the improvement of the rivers of the new west and the harbors of the Great Lakes. It was a movement of the highest importance to a vast region and, indeed, to the whole country.

In 1848 Mr. Cobb had been fifteen years in business as a harness-maker. He had prospered. Whether he continued to work in his shop with his own hands during this entire period does not appear. It is probable that as his business increased he found himself more and more occupied with the management and accounting. He liked to keep his business in his own hands and to keep his own books. At the end of fifteen years, seeing an opening for bettering his fortunes, he disposed of his old business and formed a partnership with William Osbourne in a boot and shoe and hide and leather house. The only thing now known about this venture is that at the end of four years, when he was only forty years of age, he had been so successful that he retired finally from manufacturing and merchandising with a competency. Beginning with nothing in 1833 in a miserable little frontier hamlet an inexperienced boy, nineteen years of hard work, devotion to business, avoidance of debt, strict integrity, refusal to enter into any of the orgies of speculation that repeatedly prevailed in the Chicago of these years, but as rapidly as his increasing profits permitted investing his surplus in central real estate and promising public utilities—nineteen years had made him in 1852 one of the leading capitalists of the prosperous young city of 20,000 people. This does not mean that he was

in 1852 a very rich man. But it does mean that at forty years of age he had laid a solid foundation on which to build the superstructure of his fortune. He had not yet lived out half his days. He looked back on forty years; but had he been a seer, he would have looked forward to forty-eight which he had yet to live.

But this date marked an entire change in his business activities. The reason for so radical a change does not appear. A merchant is the slave of his business. He is chained to his oar. He must keep pulling ceaselessly or his boat will begin to go downstream or run ashore. Mr. Cobb had worked very hard for nineteen years and had achieved such success that he was able to break his bonds. He seems to have become enamored of liberty and decided to be a free man for the rest of his life.

He did not, indeed, intend to spend his time in idleness. He purposed to continue as active a life as ever. His enterprising temperament would not permit him to be idle; but he was free and could employ his time as he liked. One of the first things he did was to discharge an obligation of friendship. He accepted an appointment as executor of the estate of Joseph Matteson, the original proprietor of the Matteson House, and as guardian of his five children. Mr. Cobb continued in the duties of these positions for fourteen years, discharging them with his customary fidelity and success.

He interested himself with other leading capitalists in the first of Chicago's railroads, the Galena and Chicago Union, which, launched and got under way with extraordinary difficulty, was in the end a most successful enterprise. William B. Ogden, J. Y. Scammon, John B. Turner, Benjamin W. Raymond, and men of like character and standing were leaders in the undertaking. Mr. Cobb was one of the directors of the new road and also of the Beloit and Madison. These roads were later merged in the Chicago and Northwestern system. It is a curious reflection on the foresight of ordinary business men that the merchants of Chicago, for the most part, opposed the building of railroads out of that city on the ground that it would interfere with their trade by diverting it to the country stores to which the roads would carry merchandise. It was fortunate for the early rapid development of the city that there were, among its own citizens, men of vision who realized that the one great need of Chicago was railroads, railroads running east, west, north, and south, and to every other point of the compass, men who were ready to back their views with their fortunes. These were the men who made Chicago. They built the railroads, and

the railroads built the city. These men did not profess that in providing Chicago with railroads they were moved entirely by altruism. They were farsighted men of business, but in making what they believed were good investments for themselves, they promoted at the same time the public welfare. Mr. Cobb was one of these men, promoting his own interests while conferring unspeakable benefits on the public. It was this same farsighted business policy that led him to take a substantial interest in the Chicago Gas Light and Coke Company and the street-railway companies, which made ample returns to him, but which were, at the same time, indispensable public utilities and a boon to every citizen. Of the Gas Company he became a director in 1855 and later a member of the board of managers, continuing in this position till 1887, when the merger took place with the Peoples Gas Light and Coke Company. When various street railways were consolidated into the Chicago City Railway Company, he was one of the principal capitalists among its managers.

He was long a director in the West Side Street Railway Company and president of the Chicago City Railway Company during the seventies when the underground cable system superseded the use of horses. He was a director of the National Bank of Illinois and of one of the principal insurance companies of Chicago. A propos of his connection with the street railways he made it a point to see that passengers were treated courteously, particularly women. One who frequently saw him riding on the cars relates that he would never permit a woman to stand. If the seats were full, he would invariably rise when a woman entered and insist on her taking his seat.

When Fort Sumter was fired on in April, 1861, the patriotic citizens of Chicago assembled in great mass meetings in Bryan and Metropolitan halls, and, in the presence of the total lack of arms and equipment in the state arsenals, determined that they would themselves arm and equip the Chicago volunteers who were already besieging the recruiting offices. Mr. Cobb was one of the citizens who immediately raised a fund of $40,000 for this purpose and sent a force of nearly a thousand men to seize and hold for the Union the one strategic point in Illinois—the city of Cairo. He became a member of the first company of the Chicago Home Guard and was secretary of its executive committee.

Among the other activities of Mr. Cobb, after retiring in 1852 from manufacturing and mercantile pursuits, was the improvement of his valuable business properties. On the site of his old home at the southwest corner of Lake Street and Michigan Avenue he built Cobb Block.

In 1865 he erected another building on Washington Street between Dearborn and Clark streets. Just around the corner from this he put up a third block called the Cobb Building. This was 120–28 Dearborn Street, and in this building he had his private office for many years, perhaps to the end of his life.

I am indebted to William Bross, one of the proprietors of the *Chicago Tribune*, lieutenant governor of Illinois, but popularly known in Chicago as Deacon Bross, for a picture which vividly presents the striking contrast between the boy of 1833, just landed in the miserable hamlet without a friend in the place or a cent in his pocket, and the prosperous citizen of the great city of 1870. In a lecture, "What I Remember of Early Chicago," delivered in 1876, Deacon Bross said:

> Standing in the parlor of the Merchants' Savings, Loan, and Trust Company, five or six years ago, talking with the president, Sol. A. Smith, E. H. Haddock, Dr. Foster [whose widow later built Foster Hall at the University of Chicago], and perhaps two or three others, in came Mr. Cobb, smiling and rubbing his hands in the greatest glee. "Well, what makes you so happy?" said one. "Oh," said Cobb, "this is the first day of June, the anniversary of my arrival in Chicago in 1833." "Yes," said Haddock, "the first time I saw you, Cobb, you were bossing a lot of Hoosiers weatherboarding a shanty-tavern for Jim Kinzie." "Well," Cobb retorted, in the best of humor, "you needn't put on any airs for the first time I saw you, you were shingling an outhouse!"

Mr. Bross then went on to tell something of the arrival in Chicago of Mr. Cobb, whom he referred to as "our solid president of the South Side Horse Railway," and continued:

> Mr. Haddock also came to Chicago, I think, as a small grocer; and now these gentlemen are numbered among our millionaires. Young men, the means by which they have achieved success are exceedingly simple. They have sternly avoided all mere speculation; they have attended closely to legitimate business and invested any accumulating surplus in real estate. Go ye and do likewise, and your success will be equally sure.

In choosing a place in which to make his home Mr. Cobb retreated southward slowly, apparently with reluctance, before the onflowing tide of business. Perhaps the overflow of Michigan Avenue by business houses may be historically traced by his successive removals. We have seen how he first made a home on the corner of Lake Street and Michigan Avenue in 1843. Thirteen years later, in 1856, he was residing at 135 Michigan Avenue perhaps a little north of Monroe Street. In 1859, after only three years, he retreated to No. 148, just south of Monroe. Ten years later he had been driven to No. 241, just south of Congress Street. Happily for him and his family, he then abandoned the struggle

to retain a home on Michigan Avenue and found refuge at 979 Prairie Avenue. I say "happily" for he thus escaped the destruction of his home by the great fire of 1871.

Mr. Cobb's theory of business was subjected to two supreme tests. The basis of that theory was the avoidance of debt, the making of investments, whether in stocks, lands, or buildings, only as he was able to pay for them. His investments in great public utilities were large and varied, but he was no speculator. They were made only after the most careful consideration and were solidly based on the growth of Chicago, of which he, who had been a part of its development from the beginning, was absolutely assured.

The first test came in the panic of 1857, which was one of the most severe and disastrous in the history of the country. Great numbers of men in Chicago were irretrievably ruined. Even the failure of William B. Ogden, Chicago's ablest financier, seemed inevitable and he escaped only by the considerateness of his creditors. Mr. Cobb passed through the storm unshaken. He had no creditors, and his financial position was strengthened rather than weakened by that great catastrophe.

The second test came in the fire of 1871, which destroyed entirely the business district of Chicago, as well as the whole of the north side of the city. The total losses were estimated at nearly or quite $300,000,000. Mr. Cobb's losses were very great. All his buildings in the business district were totally destroyed. Hundreds, perhaps thousands, of men were ruined; but again he was unshaken. He had no creditors. A year and a half after the fire he was again in his office in the newly constructed Cobb Building at 120–28 Dearborn Street, and his other business blocks were quickly rebuilt and as quickly rented.

At the time of the Great Fire Mr. Cobb was president of the Chicago City Railway Company and continued in that position several years. In 1877 the sons of Vermont formed an organization, and in 1883 made Mr. Cobb vice-president. He was socially inclined and was for years chairman of the reception committee of the gatherings of the old settlers conducted by the Calumet Club.

I am indebted to a Chicago banker for the following personal glimpse of him when he was approaching eighty years of age. The banker was then a young man earning fifty dollars a month and took his daily noon lunch in a restaurant where you sat at a long counter on a high stool. His regular lunch cost him fifteen cents. Next to him ordinarily sat an old man, rather plainly dressed, who, as his neighbor noticed

with some regret, seemed able to afford only a ten-cent lunch of doughnuts and a cup of tea. Meeting almost daily, they fell into a speaking acquaintance. The young man finally got a raise in salary to seventy-five dollars a month, and said to the old man: "I am afraid we shall not continue to lunch together. I have received a raise in pay and I am thinking of going to a restaurant where I can sit in a chair at a table with a table cover on it." "Let me advise you," said the older man, "not to do it. Continue to economize; save your increased pay; live simply, and when you become an old man you may be a rich one." When the young man paid his bill he asked the cashier who his aged adviser was, and was surprised to hear, "Why, that's Silas B. Cobb." The men who knew him will recognize the verisimilitude of this story. He was very frugal in all his personal expenditures; but with his family he was most liberal. He did not require from them the economies he practiced in his own person.

Mr. and Mrs. Cobb almost reached their golden anniversary together. They were married in 1840 and Mrs. Cobb lived till 1888. There were six children, five girls and one boy. Three of the daughters lived to be married and two of them survived their father. At the time of Mrs. Cobb's death the family home was at 3334 Michigan Avenue. With her sister, Mrs. Jerome Beecher, Mrs. Cobb had been much interested in the Chicago Orphan Asylum and other charities. After her death her husband made his home with his daughter, Mrs. William B. Walker, at 2027 Prairie Avenue.

He was now 76 years old, but was still vigorous and maintained the springy step and rapid pace of his earlier days. He still kept his office in the Cobb Building on Dearborn Street, and there continued to manage his multiplied business interests. It was in this office that I first saw Mr. Cobb, in 1892. I well recall the time and the circumstances. The new University of Chicago, which had not yet opened its doors to students, was engaged in what seemed the impossible task of raising in Chicago a million dollars in ninety days. Such a thing had never before been done or attempted in that city. It had not then more than one-third its present population or one-tenth its present wealth. Sixty of the ninety days given us had passed. We had little more than half the amount subscribed and seemed to be at the end of our resources. We were at a loss to whom to appeal. We knew that the family of Mr. Cobb wanted him to help us; but he had the reputation of liking to be self-moved in his giving, of disliking to be solicited.

We were assured that if we went to him and made a direct appeal he would resent it and we should defeat ourselves. We were repeatedly warned against making a direct appeal to him. His family finally told Dr. Harper, president of the University, that they feared the decision must go over to the autumn. This was in the first week in June and seemed a deathblow to all hope of success in securing the million dollars, the time for doing which would expire in thirty days.

I then said to Dr. Harper that we must take the matter into our own hands, adding that we were not in the habit of giving offense to those to whom we made our appeals. He reminded me of the warnings we had received, but said we would go if I would assume the responsibility of our probable failure. I told him that since we should lose our million dollars if Mr. Cobb did not help us, I would take the responsibility. Thereupon we went and called upon him in his unpretentious office.

He received us cordially, heard us with evident sympathy, giving us the impression that if we had not called on him he would have felt that we had overlooked him. He evidently regarded it as quite appropriate that, for so great an object and in so extreme an exigency, the matter should be brought to a man so well able to help. We had a long interview, going over the whole case very fully. We explained, in answer to his questions, a number of things he had not understood. We told him we needed $150,000 from him, and that we believed this contribution from him would assure our complete success. He seemed entirely ready to give us this great sum, and said he had thought he would write us a letter voluntarily proffering the subscription. Knowing his decided preference for making his gifts in this way, we strongly encouraged him in this purpose. We left him with the assurance that we had succeeded in our mission. Two days later Dr. Harper met him on the street and told him we had not received his letter. He said he hadn't yet found time to write it, and, in fact, didn't know just how to go at it; and intimated that he would be glad to put the matter in the way we thought would be most helpful to us in our campaign. The president came to the office and asked me to prepare such a letter as we would like to have Mr. Cobb sign, which I lost no time in doing, trying to express also what I knew were his views. This was at once sent to his office and two days later he walked into my office and returned the letter to me with his signature appended. He had not cared to alter it and it was as follows:

CHICAGO, June 9, 1892

To the Board of Trustees of the University of Chicago

GENTLEMEN: I have watched with growing interest the progress of the institution, the care of which has been intrusted to you. As my years increase, the desire grows upon me to do something for the city which has been my home for nearly sixty years. I am persuaded that there is no more important public enterprise than the University of Chicago. It seems to me to deserve the most liberal support of our citizens, and especially does it seem important that the University should, just at this juncture, be enabled to secure the million dollars it is seeking for its buildings and equipment. I therefore hereby subscribe $150,000 on the conditions of the million-dollar subscription, and put my proposed gift in this form that the securing of the full million dollars may be more certainly assured. The particular designation of this gift I will make later.

Yours sincerely,

S. B. COBB

The University was at that time building its first recitation building. For this building Mr. Cobb immediately, that same day, in fact, designated his contribution, later adding to his original donation $15,000, making a total of $165,000. His subscription proved the turning-point, perhaps it may be said, in the drive for the million-dollar building and equipment fund. Cobb Lecture Hall was so nearly finished that within its walls the work of the new University was formally opened on October 1, 1892. It has proved to be a most important building, for more than a quarter of a century the center of University life. It is eighty feet wide, one hundred and sixty feet long, and four stories in height. It contains over sixty rooms. As originally constructed it provided a chapel or assembly room for temporary use, taking for this purpose the north third of the first floor, a general lecture-room that would accommodate nearly two hundred, and offices for the president, deans, and other officials. With the multiplication of buildings, great changes have taken place in the arrangement of the first floor and the general use of the building. Other changes will be made as later buildings still further relieve the congestion, and the time will come when its use will be more largely restricted to the work of instruction. It has a record of general utility which no other University building can ever have. In the hall of the first floor may be seen a white marble bust of Mr. Cobb.

Probably no act of Mr. Cobb's life, except his marriage, gave him more unalloyed happiness than the great contribution he made for the erection of Cobb Lecture Hall. He took no pains to conceal the satisfaction he felt in it. He was evidently happy in having made a contribution to the city which had done so much for him. He had prospered in Chicago and he had been able to recognize his obligation to the city. He occasionally called at my office and once brought and left with me a photograph about 12×14 inches in size, appropriately framed, representing him sitting in the open air at his summer home at Pride's Crossing in New England, with his feet on a bowlder and a cigar in his mouth. The cigar was characteristic. He usually had one in his mouth, but did not smoke it. Underneath the picture was a brief statement, signed by him, to the effect, as nearly as I can recall, that he came to Chicago in 1833 and built the first frame house erected in the town, and that every brick building in the city had been constructed since his coming.

Mr. Cobb lived in good health almost to the last, tenderly cared for by his daughter, Mrs. William B. Walker, until he reached the age of eighty-eight years. He died April 6, 1900. The funeral service was conducted by President Harper. The honorary pallbearers, with the exception of the writer of these pages, were old business friends of wealth and prominence—S. M. Allerton, Albert Keep, E. T. Watkins, J. A. Tyrrell, and Dr. D. K. Pearsons.

The estate amounted to about $6,000,000. Bequests were made to twenty-eight nephews and nieces, amounting to $35,500; to the Home for the Friendless, $50,000; to the Chicago Orphan Asylum, $25,000; to the Old People's Home, $5,000; to the Young Men's Christian Association, $5,000; and to the American Sunday School Union, $2,500. To William B. Walker, Mr. Cobb's son-in-law, who had been very helpful to him in the care of his large interests, a bequest of $25,000 was made. The rest of the estate was left in trust to William B. Walker and Clarence Buckingham to be equally divided eventually between the two living daughters, Mrs. Walker and Mrs. Walter Denegre, and the children of a deceased daughter, Mrs. General G. Coleman.

A considerable number of the early settlers of Chicago who achieved large material success have built for themselves enduring memorials in institutions of charity and education. These benefactions for the public welfare are the things for which they will be remembered. They were not unmindful of their obligations to the city which they had helped to build and which had rewarded them with prosperity. Their

beneficence has given them an immortality of remembrance, as well as of helpful influence. Their names are and will continue to be household words on the lips of thousands every day. As the students of the University of Chicago come from every quarter of the globe and later find their spheres of activity in every land, one name will be known familiarly far beyond the limits of Chicago—the name of Silas Bowman Cobb.

EVENTS: PAST AND FUTURE

THE ONE HUNDRED AND FOURTEENTH CONVOCATION

The One Hundred and Fourteenth Convocation was held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, Tuesday, December 23, at 4:00 P.M. The Convocation Statement was made by President Harry Pratt Judson.

The award of honors was announced. The election of the following students as associate members to Sigma Xi was announced: Lyman Chalkley, Jr., Henry Leon Cox, Marie Farnsworth, Anne Braid Hepburn, Samuel Jacob Jacobsohn, Robert Stern Landauer, Clarence John Monroe, Elsie Marie Plapp, Emil Durbin Ries, Herman Bernhard Siems, Stewart Duffield Swan, Margaret Fitch Willcox. The election of the following students as members of Sigma Xi was announced: Theodore Hieronymus Bast, Hugo Leander Blomquist, William John Crozier, Harold Clifford Goldthorpe, Aubrey Chester Grubb, William F. E. Gurley, Evelyn Gertrude Halliday, Samuel Chester Henn, Isadore Meyer Jacobsohn, Hilary Stanislaus Jurica, John Wayne Lasley, Louis Leiter, Mayme Irwin Logdson, Frank Paden McWhorter, Elizabeth Wilhelmina Miller, James J. Moorehead, Adolf Carl Noé, Walter Lincoln Palmer, Lydia Jane Roberts, George Ross Robertson, Frank V. Sander, Max Sasuly, William Frederic Schroeder, Paul Joseph Sedgwick, William Allen Smiley, James Hollingsworth Smith, Warren Braman Smith, Mable Stockholm, Helen Mabel Strong, Frederick Karl Swoboda, George Addison Talbert, Harriet Williams Van Nostrand, Arthur Herman Weiland, Derwent Stainthorpe Whittlesey, Elizabeth Pauline Wolf, Sybil Woodruff. The election of the following students to the Beta of Illinois Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa was announced: Arthur Cohen, Ben Herzberg, Carl Gilbert Johnson, Leah Pearl Libman, Cyril Vincent Lundvick, Esther Sable, George Dumas Stout.

Honorable mention for excellence in the work of the Junior Colleges: George Harold Caldwell, Harry Wesley Cartwright, James Carlin Crandall, Albert Clinton De Witt, Frank Lowell Dunn, Edna Helen Eisendrath, Lucile Gillespie, Kenneth Hancock Goode, Dorothea Marguerite Harjes, Elizabeth Katherine Lindquist, Ruth Lovett, Marion Catherine Lydon, Abe Matheson, Hazel Matilda Mattick, Earl Altimont Miller, J. Shelton Raban, Minnie Reiss, Flora May Sanders, Luther Martin Sandwick, Josephine Marguerite Stroud, Robert Joseph West. Honorable mention for excellence in the work leading to the certificate of the College of Education: Cherrie Phillips. The Bachelor's degree was conferred with honors on the following students: William Robert Baker, Grace Tinker Davis, Benjamin Goldberg, Eva Louise Hyde, Agnes Jacques, Richard Anderson Jones, Leah Pearl Libman, Cyril Vincent Lundvick, Laura Waples McMullen, Harold William Norman, Helen Mary Northrop, Frederick Nymeyer, Arthur Waterman Rogers, Charles William Schwede, Clara Victoria Severin, Edward Theodore Soukup, Lewis Hanford Tiffany. Honors for excellence in particular departments of the Senior Colleges were awarded to the following students: Harriet Frances Glendon, Home Economics; Benjamin Goldberg, Botany; Earl Henry Hall, Botany; Mabelle Alice Hay, Botany; Agnes Jacques, French; Leah Pearl Libman, Mathematics; Cyril Vincent Lundvick, Chemistry; Cyril Vincent Lundvick, Anatomy; Laura Waples McMullen, Philosophy and Psychology; Laura Waples McMullen, General Literature; Harold William Norman, Law; Helen Mary Northrop, German; Charles William Schwede, Chemistry; Edward Theodore Soukup, Political Economy; Lewis Hanford Tiffany, Botany; Mabel Toles, Spanish.

Degrees and titles were conferred as follows: *The Colleges:* the certificate of the College of Education, 8; the degree of Bachelor of Arts, 3; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy, 43; the degree of Bachelor of Science, 29; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy in Education, 10; the degree of Bachelor of Science in

Education, 1; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy in Commerce and Administration, 3; *The Divinity School:* the degree of Master of Arts, 2; the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 1; *The Law School:* the degree of Bachelor of Laws, 2; the degree of Doctor of Law, 7; *The Graduate Schools of Arts, Literature, and Science:* the degree of Master of Arts, 9; the degree of Master of Science, 6; the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 6. The total number of degrees conferred was 129.

The Convocation Prayer Service was held at 10:30 A.M., Sunday, December 21, in the Reynolds Club. At 11:00 A.M., in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, the Convocation Religious Service was held. The preacher was the Reverend Theodore Gerald Soares, Ph.D., D.D., Professor of Homiletics and Religious Education and Head of the Department of Practical Theology, University of Chicago.

Mr. Trevor Arnett, Auditor of the University of Chicago, has been appointed an additional secretary of the General Education Board, to which a new gift of $50,000,000 has just been made by Mr. John D. Rockefeller. Early in January Mr. Arnett will accompany other officers of the Board on a trip to educational institutions in the South. For the present Mr. Arnett will divide his time between the University of Chicago and the General Education Board.

At the thirty-second meeting of the American Economic Association held in Chicago from December 29 to 31 Associate Professor Harold G. Moulton, of the Department of Political Economy, presented a paper on "The Price Question and Banking Policy"; Professor Harry A. Millis, of the same department, discussed "Immigration and Immigration Problems"; and Dean Leon C. Marshall, of the School of Commerce and Administration, took part in a discussion of "The Teaching of Economics." Dean Marshall was chairman of the committee on local arrangements.

Professor Julius Stieglitz, Chairman of the Department of Chemistry, recently appeared before a subcommittee of the United States Senate to give evidence on the importance of establishing American independence in the manufacture of finer chemicals, especially the finer organic chemicals, which in the past have been almost monopolized by Germany. Assistant Professor Gerald L. Wendt, also of the Chemistry Department, recently addressed the Western Roentgen Society on "The Physical Factors Underlying the Use of Radium and Radium Emanation."

The University of Chicago Post of the American Legion, recently organized at the University with some three hundred members, has as commander Norman Hart, vice-commander Royal Munger, and secretary-treasurer G. K. Bowden. Dean James Parker Hall, of the Law School, presided at the meeting of organization in Kent Theater, when a formal application was made for affiliation with the national organization. Assistant Professor Rudolph Altrocchi, of the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures, who was in war service in Italy and France, is chairman of the membership committee.

A new University of Chicago alumni club was recently organized at Peoria, Illinois, by fifty-four graduates and former students, after an address on the growth of the University by Dean Nathaniel Butler, of University College. Harry Dale Morgan, A.B., '06, was elected president; Dr. Sidney H. Easton, S.B., '10, vice-president; and Anna Jewett Le Fevre, secretary-treasurer.

The University Preachers for the Winter Quarter, 1920, are as follows: January 4, Rev. Charles LeRoy Goodell, St. Paul's M.E. Church, New York City; January 11, Dr. Goodell; January 18, Rev. John MacNeill, Walmer Road Baptist Church, Toronto; January 25, Rev. John Timothy Stone, Fourth Presbyterian Church, Chicago; February 1, President J. Ross Stevenson, Princeton Theological Seminary; February 8, Rev. Elijah Andrews Hanley, First Baptist Church, Rochester, New York; February 15, Professor Albert Parker Fitch, Amherst College, Amherst, Massachusetts; February 22, Professor Fitch; February 29, Dean Lee Sullivan McCollester, Tufts College, Massachusetts; March 7, Dean McCollester.

The University of Chicago Press announces for immediate publication a new number in the Publications of the

Geographic Society of Chicago under the title of *The Geography of the Ozark Highland of Missouri*. The author, Dr. Carl O. Sauer, of the University of Michigan, received his Doctor's degree from the University of Chicago in 1915.

New impressions of successful books announced for January publication by the University of Chicago Press included the following: *A Short History of Belgium*, by Professor Léon Van der Essen, of the University of Louvain, to which the author has added a new after-the-war chapter; *A Short History of Japan*, by Ernest W. Clement; *A Manual for Writers*, by John M. Manly and John A. Powell; *Literature in the Elementary School*, by Porter Lander MacClintock; *The Psychology of Religion*, by George A. Coe; and *The University of Chicago: An Official Guide*, by David A. Robertson.

An important new volume in the "University of Chicago Nature-Study Series" was also announced for the same month—*A Field and Laboratory Guide in Physical Nature-Study*, by Elliot R. Downing. Two volumes in this highly successful series have already appeared—*A Field and Laboratory Guide in Biological Nature-Study* and *A Source Book of Biological Nature-Study*.

Four hundred and twenty men who were in service in the recent war, either in the army or navy, have been given scholarships or partial scholarships on the La Verne Noyes Foundation for the Winter Quarter at the University of Chicago. The scholarships are distributed among men from thirty-nine states, the largest number of assignments being to men from Illinois. Other states represented by considerable numbers are Iowa, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, and Oklahoma. Most of the present holders of the scholarships were in service fourteen months or more, and the majority of them saw service in France.

The chief considerations on which the awards have been made are length and character of service, need of the man, and scholarship. The number of applicants was at least twice the number of assignments.

Director James Henry Breasted, of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, is now in Egypt, where the members of the Institute's expedition are being assembled at Cairo. The heartiest co-operation on the part of both the British and the French authorities has not only made possible but is materially facilitating the undertaking of explorations. The party will leave for the Tigro-Euphrates Valley about February 10. After reaching the port of Bosra, the sites of ancient Babylonian and Assyrian civilization will be visited. The route will then be westward through Aleppo and southward to Beirut on the Syrian coast. Other districts will be studied if time permits. The members of the expedition are to be back in Chicago by October first.

For the large registration in the new Institute for Church Workers at the University of Chicago, practical courses in Bible-study, religious education, church organization, and recreational activities are being given in Emmons Blaine Hall every Monday evening during the present quarter.

Dean Shailer Mathews, of the Divinity School, Dr. J. M. P. Smith, and Dr. Shirley J. Case are conducting the courses in Bible-study; Professor Theodore G. Soares, Head of the Department of Practical Theology, and Dean Frank G. Ward, of the Chicago Theological Seminary, have charge of the courses in Sunday-school methods; Dean Mathews, President Ozora S. Davis, of the Chicago Theological Seminary, and others discuss the relation of the church and the community; and Associate Professor Joseph M. Artman, Director of Vocational Training, discusses the religious development of the child.

One of the important features of the Institute is the practical attention given to non-equipment games and recreational programs under the direction of the Physical Culture Department of the University.

"The Art and Architecture of Roumania" was the subject of an illustrated lecture at the University of Chicago on January 30 by Professor Charles Upson Clark, formerly director of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome. The lecture was given under the auspices of the Chicago Society of the Archaeological Institute of America, of which society Professor Gordon J. Laing, of the Department of Latin at the University of Chicago, is secretary.

Professor Paul Shorey, Head of the Department of the Greek Language and Literature at the University of Chicago, is giving two courses of lectures at Johns Hopkins University, one a seminar in Plato and the other a course on the history of Greek philosophy. In 1912 Dr. Shorey was Turnbull lecturer in poetry at Johns Hopkins.

Professor Charles H. Haskins, dean of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences at Harvard University, who was attached to the American Commission to Negotiate Peace, gave a largely attended public lecture on "The Peace Conference at Paris" at the University of Chicago on January 28. Dean Haskins, who formerly was professor of European history in the University of Wisconsin, was American member of the Conference Commission on Belgian and Dutch Affairs and a member of the special committee on Alsace-Lorraine and the Saar Valley.

The members of the Renaissance Society of the University of Chicago were the guests of Mr. and Mrs. Martin A. Ryerson to view their art collection at their home, 4851 Drexel Boulevard, Chicago, on January 25. The collection, which is of remarkable range and interest in the history of art, was explained by Walter Sargent, Professor of Art Education at the University, and Dr. Richard Offner, of the Department of the History of Art.

The Renaissance Society, which is especially active this year, has just given an exhibition of the sculpture of Alfeo Faggi for ten days in the Classics Building, and under its auspices Dr. Frank J. Mather, Jr., professor of art in Princeton University, lectured in January on "Masaccio and Realism." The president of the society is Professor Gordon J. Laing, of the Department of Latin, and the secretary is Mrs. Henry Gordon Gale.

The remarkable interest in the rebuilding and new equipment of the University of Louvain in Belgium made especially timely the appearance of Professor Maurice de Wulf, of the faculty of that institution, as a lecturer at the University of Chicago. Professor de Wulf lectured in the Classics Building, February 5, on "The Social Philosophy of the Thirteenth Century: The Individual and the Collective Group."

Official announcement is just made of the total registration at the University of Chicago for the Winter Quarter, 1920.

In the Graduate Schools of Arts, Literature, and Science there are 451 men and 251 women, a total of 702. In the Senior Colleges there are 512 men and 419 women, a total of 931; in the Junior Colleges, 819 men and 535 women, a total of 1,354; and Unclassified students, 120, a total for the Colleges of 2,405.

In the Professional Schools there are 163 Divinity students, 212 Medical students, 304 Law students, 216 in Education, and 545 in Commerce and Administration, a total for the Professional Schools of 1,440. The registration for University College is 1,203.

The total registration for the University, excluding duplications, is 3,006 men and 2,466 women, a grand total of 5,472.

One of the pleasant incidents connected with the visit of M. Maurice Maeterlinck to the University of Chicago on February 13 was the presentation to him by President Harry Pratt Judson of *A Short History of Belgium* written by Professor Léon Van der Essen, of the University of Louvain, and published by the University of Chicago Press. The book has a chapter on Belgium's heroic part in the war.

The same volume is to be presented in a special binding to King Albert, of Belgium, to whom the book is dedicated by the author. The binding is in full black morocco with back stamped in red and gold, representing the Belgian colors, and with the coat-of-arms of the University of Chicago stamped on the side. In the making of the book it is interesting to know that the little volume was sewed by an Englishman, bound by a Belgian, and finished by a Czecho-Slovak.

Associate Professor David D. Luckenbill, of the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures at the University of Chicago, who is expected to join the expedition of the Oriental Institute of the University now being conducted by Director James Henry Breasted, was delayed in Paris by the strikes in Italy but left for Trieste on January 26, whence he sailed for Alexandria. The date set for the party to leave Egypt for the Tigro-Euphrates Valley was February 10.

Dr. Luckenbill, who received his Doctor's degree from the University of

Chicago in 1907, has been connected since that time with the work in Semitics.

A graduate of the University of Chicago, Dr. Burton E. Livingston, who received his Doctor's degree from that institution in 1901, has been elected permanent secretary of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. Dr. Livingston will retain his professorship of plant physiology at Johns Hopkins University, his office as secretary of the Association being at the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C.

Professor Livingston has been a soil expert in the United States Bureau of Soils and a member of the department of botanical research in the Carnegie Institution, and is the inventor of scientific instruments for measuring evaporation and for automatic control of soil moisture.

A William Vaughn Moody lecture on "Japanese Poetry" was given in the William Rainey Harper Memorial Library at the University of Chicago on February 16. The lecturer was Mr. Yone Noguchi, a Japanese poet who is professor of English literature in Keio University, Japan.

At the meetings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science held in St. Louis during the holiday week, the following University of Chicago doctors were among the officers of the various sections or of affiliated scientific societies: Section A (Mathematics and Astronomy), George D. Birkhoff, '07, Harvard, retiring vice-president, F. R. Moulton and G. A. Bliss, University of Chicago, secretaries for one and four years respectively; Section B (Physics), Gordon F. Hull, '97, retiring vice-president; Section C (Chemistry), R. F. Bacon, '04, director of Mellon Institute, member of general executive committee; Section E (Geology and Geography), Rollin T. Chamberlin, '07, Chicago secretary for one year, and W. W. Atwood, '03, Harvard, for five years; Section F (Zoölogy), V. E. Shelford, '07, secretary for four years; Section G (Botany), William Crocker, '06, Chicago, member of the general committee; American Mathematical Society, Gilbert A. Bliss, '00, retiring chairman of the Chicago section; Mathematical Association of America, H. E. Slaught, '98, retiring president; American Society of Zoölogists, C. M. Child, Univeristy of Chicago, president, W. C. Allee, '12, Lake Forest College, secretary; Entomological Society of America, Charles A. Shull, '15, chairman of the Physiological section.

Also papers were read at the meetings by Chicago doctors as follows: G. D. Birkhoff, '07, retiring vice-presidential address of Section A; G. A. Bliss, '00, retiring chairman address; H. E. Slaught, '98, address of meeting of the Missouri section of the Mathematical Association of America; Louis Ingold, '07, on a "Treatment of Fourier's Series"; Gordon F. Hull, '97, retiring vice-presidential address of Section B; Irwin Roman, A.M., '16, on "Defects in Centered Quodric Lenses"; A. C. Lunn, '04, on "Influence of Blowing Pressure on Pitch of Pipe Organ"; T. E. Doubt, '04, on "Charcoal Absorptions and Cyclic Change"; C. H. Gordon, '95, "Geology of the Cave-Areas of East Tennessee"; S. S. Visher, '14, "Geology of the Sullivan County (Indiana) Oil Field"; Stuart Weller, Chicago, "The Chester Series in Illinois"; R. T. Chamberlin, '07, "Some Glacier Studies in Alaska"; Reinhardt Thiessen, '07, "Correlation of Coal Fields by Means of Their Spore-Exines"; W. W. Atwood, '03, "Educational Advantages of the Regional Treatment of Geography"; V. E. Shelford, '07, "Illinois Natural History Survey"; Charles Zeleny, '04, "The Mutational Series in Dropsiphila"; W. C. Allee, '12, "Animal Aggregations"; C. J. Chamberlain, '97, "The Living Cycads and the Phylogeny of Seed Plants"; W. J. G. Land, '04, "A Suspensor in Angiopteris"; C. A. Shull, '15, "Absorptions of Moisture by Gelatin in a Saturated Atmosphere"; "Changes in Vegetations of Western Kentucky"; "The Formation of a New Island in the Mississippi River"; Helen T. Wooley, '00, "Organization of Course of Study in the Elementary School"; Clara Schmitt, '14, "Reasons for Retardations in Arithmetic"; J. E. Hosic, Ph.M., '02, "Some Results of an Empirical Study of School Reading Books."

ATTENDANCE IN AUTUMN QUARTER, 1919

	Men	Women	Total 1919	Total 1916	Gain	Loss
I. The Departments of Arts, Literature, and Science:						
1. The Graduate Schools—						
Arts and Literature	208	168	376	366	10	.....
Science	232	87	319	322	.....	3
Total	440	255	695	688	7	.....
2. The Colleges—						
Senior	466	395	861	725	136	.....
Junior	922	615	1,537	1,246	291	.....
Unclassified	73	70	143	112	31	.....
Total	1,461	1,080	2,541	2,083	458	.....
Total Arts, Literature, and Science	1,901	1,335	3,236	2,771	465	.....
II. The Professional Schools:						
1. Divinity School—						
Graduate	93	92	105	151	.....	.....
Unclassified	18	9 (5 dup.)	27 (3 dup.)	25	.....	.....
English Theological	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chicago Theological	23	2	25	38	.....	.....
Total	134	23	157	214	.....	57
*2. The Courses in Medicine—						
Graduate	67	18	85	91	.....	.....
Senior	93	13	106	116	.....	.....
Junior	10	.....	10	8	.....	.....
Unclassified	4	.....	4	5	.....	.....
Total	174	32	206	220	.....	14
3. The Law School—						
Graduate	154	6	160	142	.....	.....
*Senior	58	.....	58	65	.....	.....
Candidates for LL.B	88	4	92	69	.....	.....
Unclassified	1	.....	1	2	.....	.....
Total	301	10	311	278	33	.....
4. The College of Education	22	220	242	371	.....	129
5. The College of Commerce and Administration	446	137	583	207	376	.....
Total Professional	1,077	422	1,499	1,290	309	.....
Total University	2,978	1,757	4,735	4,061	674	.....
*Deduct for Duplications	237	35	272	293	.....	.....
Net Totals in Quadrangles	2,741	1,722	4,463	3,768	695	.....
University College	258	961	1,219	1,169	50	.....
Total in University	2,999	2,683	5,682	4,937	745	.....

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(New Series)

APRIL 1920

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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

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THE POLITICAL PROGRESS OF THE ENGLISH WORKINGMAN[1]

BY CONYERS READ
Professor of History, University of Chicago

In common English parlance the term workingman has for some time been monopolized by the manual industrial worker. All others who will not be classified as gentlemen of leisure have had to find some other designation for their energies. They may be ministers or servants, assistants or laborers, but unless they drive a machine or handle a tool they are not workingmen.

How the industrial worker secured title to this simple and honorable appellation is a question which we can safely leave to the philologists. We are more concerned with the fellow which it denotes. He has answered in his time to many names. Historically speaking he is the oldest kind of fellow on earth; or at least he is the kind of which we have the oldest record. He chipped the oldest stone implement in our museums, forged the oldest blade, molded the oldest pot. And the Lord alone knows how far behind these chance survivals of his handicraft his history ascends. To tell the whole story of his progress would involve telling the whole story of civilization, and nothing of that sort can be attempted here. Of his political progress the recorded tale is far briefer. It carries us, in England at any rate, no farther back than the Middle Ages, and most of it falls well within the compass of the last hundred years.

The medieval prototype of the modern industrial worker was the craftsman. He was then as he is now a townsman, though he certainly

[1] Delivered on the occasion of the One Hundred and Fifteenth Convocation of the University held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, March 16, 1920.

came from the country in the first place and he long preserved a healthy smell of the earth about him. It was in connection with the government of his town that he made his début into politics. At first he was a more or less accidental feature in an urban community mainly devoted to trade, a hewer of wood and a drawer of water for the merchants who ran the town in their own interests. Later as he grew in numbers he learned how to organize his strength and was able to contend with his masters for a share in the town government. In the long run he rather more than won his way, and long before the end of the Middle Ages he had become in the great majority of English towns the dominating element in municipal politics.

It is unfortunate that we know so little about this part of his history because it is clear from the results he achieved that he revealed early a capacity for politics of no mean dimensions. This much at least is certain that the original basis of his organization was industrial and that his political effort was directed through industrial channels. The English craft guild like the modern English trade union was not designed for political purposes, but like the trade union also, it could be made to serve.

In its early days the English craft guild furnished an excellent example of democracy in industry. It aimed to include everyone within the town who followed the same craft. Practically the only qualification for membership which it required was that of good workmanship. If apprentices and journeymen were not admitted to the full privileges of the guild it was merely because they were regarded as not having completed their technical education. Not every one of them eventually attained to the mastery of the craft. Not every Freshman for that matter gets his degree. But the assumption was that the apprentice would in time become a journeyman, and the journeyman in time a master. After all the only thing which really counted for much in medieval industry was handicraft skill. Capital was hardly necessary. The tools of the trade were few and cheap, power a matter of vigorous arms and legs, the shop a workman's bench in the front parlor and a sign above the street door. Given the technique, the equipment was easily found. And once an artisan was admitted to the guild the guild saw to it that he got his fair share of the local business. Equality of opportunity was one of the fundamental principles of its organization, and in the days when the market was limited by the town walls, when outside competition was rigorously excluded, when fashion was not the inconstant lady which she has since become, and when town populations just about held their own against plague, pestilence, and famine, equality of opportunity was not so hard

to manage. The consequence was that the members of the craft stood upon almost an equal footing. Making allowances for individual variations in manual dexterity they all did much the same thing in much the same way. They purchased their raw material in the town market, manipulated it with the assistance of a few apprentices and journeymen in their little workshops, and sold the product over their counters. They were at once buyers and salesmen, shopkeepers and artisans, employers and workmen, owners and operatives. Since the prices at which they bought and the prices at which they sold, the wages they paid, the hours they worked, and even the quantity and the quality of their finished products were all strictly regulated by guild ordinance, there was little play for competition and small chance for any craftsman to forge far ahead of his fellows. Very likely the system discouraged individual enterprise, but it made for equality and probably came as near to achieving a really democratic régime in industry as any system has ever come.

When such organizations began to interest themselves in local politics it was usually with a view to winning the municipal franchise for their own members. When they succeeded, and they generally did succeed, the master craftsman became the controlling element in the town government. No doubt he frequently abused his power in that narrow class spirit which has too often characterized the workingman in politics. But his very abuse of it proves how substantial his power was. Indeed it may be doubted whether he has ever since played so important a part in local government as he played in the early Middle Ages. When it is recalled that a large proportion of the members of the medieval House of Commons were delegates from the English towns it may even be asserted that his influence was not inconsiderable in national affairs.

Had England stood still where she was in the early Middle Ages, had the English towns preserved their splendid isolation, had roads not been built and commerce developed, had America and the Cape route to the Far East never been discovered, had the Renaissance failed to awaken men's minds and arouse their temporal ambitions, then the medieval craft guild might have survived unchanged to our own day, and many of the evils incidental to what we call industrial progress might have been avoided. But England moved before these powerful impulses along with all the rest of the Western world and the medieval craft guild moved with her. We need not call it progress, but we must certainly call it change. So far as the craftsman was concerned what affected him most were the increased facilities for trade. It enlarged his opportunities, opened to

him a market for his commodities far beyond the limits of his town walls. This was a market which he could not control as he had controlled the town market, but one in which he was eager to compete. For such competition he found the guild organization rather a hindrance than a help. It hampered his action, restricted the free play of his individual enterprise and business acumen, limited his rate of progress to the pace of the slowest and stupidest of his confrères. Originally a fortress, it ultimately became a prison. And the consequence was that guild practices had to be modified and guild restrictions ignored.

For one thing the increasing complexities of the larger trade necessitated the distribution of the different parts of a business operation. It was no longer possible for the same craftsman to be at once a buyer, a manufacturer, and a merchant. Some, the more alert, became entrepreneurs, others, the less alert, remained at the bench to produce what another man would sell. The latter in fact became subservient to the former. In such wise from the democratic bosom of the craft guild differences and distinctions were born. While some of the abler masters ascended to the position of trading employers, others descended to a position hardly to be distinguished from that of wage-earners.

Furthermore, in proportion as the employer's interest in trade developed his interest in production as a guild monopoly diminished. He ceased to care much what particular group of craftsmen made his wares so long as they were made cheaply. Presently he discovered that there were workers outside the guild ranks altogether, country workers in fact, who could produce more cheaply. He began to draw upon them for his merchandise. And so he was instrumental in building up outside the town walls a competing source of supply. The guilds fought hard to retain their monopoly but in the long run had to confess defeat. Indeed many of their poorer members and many of their apprentices and journeymen went over to the enemy and moved to the country in order to take advantage of the freer conditions there. And the town authorities, alarmed at this wholesale exodus, took steps to prevent it by conniving at the breach of those very guild regulations which in an earlier time they had been at such pains to enforce. The outcome was that in the towns as in the country districts a large industrial class developed who were not only not guildsmen but who ignored the guild law. It is true that the guilds survived. Some of them indeed survive to the present day. But by the end of the seventeenth century English industry had in large measure escaped their confines and they had ceased to have more than a social significance.

Time does not serve to trace all the steps in the transformation of the craft guilds, but long before the factory had displaced the older industrial arrangements many of the characteristics of our modern industrial system had developed. The craft guild had become an association of employers, a permanent wage-earning class had emerged, and the old solidarity of medieval industry had made way for conflicts over wages, hours, and conditions of work which differed only in degree from those of our own day.

From the point of view of the workingman in politics the significance of all these changes lies in the fact that his political influence in the Middle Ages has been exerted through the medium of his craft guild. It was as a guildsman that he had come to dominate the town government and through the town government had been able to make his will felt in the deliberations of the national House of Commons. Exclusion from the guild meant, therefore, exclusion from any further share either in local or in national politics. The political power which the early guildsmen had won for the whole body of industrial workers became the monopoly of the small group which came to monopolize the craft organization. Town governments were converted into narrow class oligarchies and the voice of the towns in parliament became the voice of the merchant employers. The average industrial worker was reduced to a political nonentity. He lost every legitimate means of political expression. The only kind of political action left to him was rebellion. We should expect to discover that when conditions got too bad he did rebel; yet it would be hard to point to any considerable uprising in the whole history of England before the Industrial Revolution which drew its strength from industrial discontent. There were now and then local strikes in particular trades, there were apprentice riots against foreign workmen and there were probably industrial elements present in such agrarian disturbances as the Peasants' Revolt of 1381 and the anti-inclosure tumults of the sixteenth century, but broadly speaking the English workingman of those times seems to have accepted his fate without violent remonstrance. During the civil wars of the seventeenth century, when much which was hidden in normal times was made manifest, he did for a moment manage to voice his discontent. Then we hear the downtrodden London weavers expounding the social compact to their betters and the London iron founders invoking the "laws of God, of Nature, and of Nations" in support of their just rights. Then the Levellers, led by a quondam London apprentice, denounced alike the king and the Commons and presented a program of democratic reform which would have raised the industrial

worker at once to political equality with his task masters. But it all served to no purpose, at least to no immediate purpose so far as the seventeenth-century workingman was concerned. Two centuries later radical labor agitators were to draw inspiration from the pamphlets of the Levellers, and Chartists were to borrow some of their formulas. Immediately the democratic panaceas of the civil-war period left the industrial worker where it found him—the prey to his masters, a supernumerary in the body politic.

After all, if he did not lack the spirit, he lacked the strength to assert his rights. It must not be forgotten that he constituted a small minority of the population of seventeenth-century or even of eighteenth-century England. Notwithstanding remarkable industrial development under the Tudors, the Stuarts, and the early Hanoverians, England was still, at the beginning of the last century, unmistakably an agricultural community. The average Englishman was still a tiller of the soil and though industrial workers were far more numerous than they had been they were relatively few in numbers, and that few scattered and unorganized. The growth of country industry was in itself a disintegrating force, for it involved the destruction of that compact, urban solidarity which had been one of the chief characteristics of medieval industry and one of its chief political assets. It is true that the workingman after his exclusion from the guild formed associations for his own protection which were the forerunners of the modern trade union. Had these succeeded in combining their forces as they did in Germany in the *Gesellen-verbände* or in France in the *confrèries* they might perhaps have asserted themselves to some effect. As it was they were scarcely strong enough to hold their own in the face of guild opposition and could rarely accomplish so much as a successful local strike. Of political action they never dreamed.

If then we consider as a whole the political history of the workingman from the days when he first began to organize into craft guilds down to the days of the first factories we are forced to the conclusion that the last state of that man was worse than the first, that he did not progress, he went backward, that his political fortunes did not improve, they deteriorated. Possibly this was inevitable. We may if we like regard it as the run backward preliminary to the long leap forward. Anyway the fact is undeniable. We need not attempt to assign the blame, though it must appear that by and large the man who became the exploiting employer emerged from the same class as the man who became the downtrodden wage-earner. The earlier course of English industrial history on the whole supports the contention that the workingman is no more

immune from the temptations of industrial prosperity than any other son of Adam.

About the middle of the eighteenth century there began in England that remarkable change in industrial technique which produced what we usually call the Industrial Revolution. Its general characteristics are sufficiently familiar. From the point of view of the workingman perhaps its most significant feature was the substitution of steam power for muscle power as the motive force in industry; for it was that substitution which made possible the introduction of labor-saving machinery and changed the whole relation of the worker to his work. For one thing it tended to reduce the demand for his labor. One man with a machine could do what ten men had done before. For another it opened the door to new sources of labor supply. Women and even children could be utilized in the new processes to a degree never before dreamed of. To a considerable extent this increased labor supply was absorbed by the enormous expansion of industry occasioned by the Napoleonic Wars on the Continent. But even so there were more workers than there was work. This gave the employer the whip hand in the situation. He was able to exact long hours for low wages and so to reduce the earning capacity of the workingman to the level of a bare sustenance. Indeed, thanks to the public provision for the relief of the poor, he went even farther than that. After the so-called Speenhamland Act of 1785 the English local authorities practically guaranteed a certain minimum income to the workingman, based upon the size of his family and the price of corn. If he did not receive this minimum from his labors the balance was made up out of public funds. The employers often took advantage of this situation to pay their workers something less than a living wage and charged the deficit to the community at large. So extensive was this practice that it was estimated early in the nineteenth century that one-seventh of the population were in receipt of poor relief. This meant that the standard of living of the industrial worker was reduced to the lowest point compatible with keeping body and soul together. He was indeed hideously overworked, underfed, underclothed, and undersheltered. At the same time improper labor in the factory and in the mine was stunting the growth of his children and weakening the fecundity of his wife. The very circumstances which made his position intolerable robbed him of his strength to combat them.

From another point of view also the introduction of new machinery placed the workingman more completely than ever at the mercy of his employer. Under the old system the important factor in industry had

been handicraft skill. The tools of trade had been simple and cheap, not inaccessible to the thrifty worker. Under the new system they were not only elaborate and expensive but they could not be run without the application of power which was more expensive still. No workingman could dream of furnishing himself with such equipment, nor could he on the other hand dream of competing against it with his old equipment. He had to work at another man's machine or he might as well not work at all. Of course if he did not work the machine could not run. But that alternative was not in fact open to him. He had no accumulated resources upon which to subsist without working. The idleness of the machine might mean financial distress for the employer. For the worker it meant nothing less than starvation.

Yet from still another point of view the Industrial Revolution contributed mightily to the strength of the workingman and in the long run provided the means of his salvation. In the first place it greatly increased his numbers. If the initial effect of the introduction of labor-saving machinery was to reduce the number of available jobs, its ultimate effect by diminishing the costs of production was so greatly to increase the demand for manufactured commodities that English industrial activity expanded at a truly phenomenal rate. Probably the demand for industrial workers lagged behind the supply. Certainly the workingman got little of the profits from this enormous increase of business. But in any case the rapid development of industry drew to the great industrial centers a steady stream of immigrants which had the effect, in the course of of the century, of converting smiling country England into the greatest industrial community on earth. At the beginning of the eighteenth century the industrial workers constituted a small and scattered minority of England's population. At the beginning of the twentieth century they constituted a large and a well-concentrated majority.

Probably the Industrial Revolution contributed as much to the strength of the workingman by concentrating his numbers as it did by increasing them. There was a great deal more to it than the introduction of the factory system, but certainly the development of the factory was one of its conspicuous features. The old industry had been in all its various changes a domestic industry. With a few interesting exceptions the workingman's home had been his workshop whether he worked for himself or for someone else. This arrangement had had its disadvantages even in the days when machines were driven by hand or foot power. The introduction of steam power made it impossible, for the only way in which steam power could be used economically was by employing

one steam engine to drive a number of machines. That meant that machinery instead of being scattered over the countryside in peasants' cottages had to be arranged with reference to one common drive-shaft, in fact concentrated under one roof. Of necessity the concentration of the industrial workers followed. So we got the factory and around the factory the factory town. It was an ugly place, a dirty place, and an extremely unhealthy place. To the country immigrant it meant the loss of clean country air, of green fields and hedgerows, of primroses on spring roadsides and skylarks in midsummer skies, and all these were grievous losses indeed. But it offered something pretty precious in exchange. It offered, in fact, human society. For the country life, notwithstanding all its charms, was a lonely and an isolated life, while the city life, for all its grime and misery, was teeming with social opportunity. The city brought men together who had never been together before. It provided contact between mind and mind. It made good schools possible; it made cheap newspapers possible; it made evening conferences on front doorsteps possible. Most important of all, it made industrial and political organization possible. And the discipline of the factory itself, harsh though it was, contributed to the same end. Men long accustomed to work by themselves learned perforce how to work together. They discovered the value and the strength of co-operative effort. They developed *esprit de corps*. From this point of view the Industrial Revolution was a great constructive force both in society and in politics. By drawing great numbers of men together it created out of countless scattered individuals compact communities, united by their work, united by the proximity of their living, united in their scanty pleasures, united above all in their common miseries. Perhaps these results could have been achieved by other less painful methods. But it is doubtful whether they could have been achieved anything like so rapidly. On that account it may well be questioned whether the Industrial Revolution did the workingman as much harm as it did him good, or to state the matter more broadly, whether these seething cauldrons of social corruption and social energy which we call great industrial centers have not, in the general reckoning of human progress, been worth all that they have cost.

This much the Industrial Revolution assuredly did for the English workingman: it defined in unmistakable terms his grievances and it organized his strength to redress them. The grievances were the familiar ones—long hours and short wages. The organization at first naturally followed the lines laid down by the miserable wage-earners under the old

régime—combinations of workers by trades. But progress was slow in organization because, when these feeble trade unions appealed to the government to redress their grievances they spoke to deaf ears, when they resorted to the alternative of the strike they broke the law. They did worse than break the law; they provoked the enactment of a new and more stringent law. In 1799 the employers were able to secure the passage of an act in Parliament forbidding the workingman to combine for higher wages or shorter hours, forbidding him to attend any meeting designed for those purposes, forbidding him even to converse about such matters with his fellows. And that law remained on the statute books for twenty-five years. During that period though it did not altogether destroy the trade unions it effectually prevented their use as an instrument for the redress of industrial grievances. Indirectly it had a great deal to do with forcing the workingman to interest himself in politics, because it made clear to him that so long as political power remained a monopoly of the employing class the whole force of the law would be ranged upon the side of his exploiters.

It may seem surprising that up to this time no mention has been made of the general progress of political reform in England. That there was progress is undoubted, progress of the greatest importance to the workingman as well as to every other Englishman. But that the workingman as such contributed to it or played any very conscious part in it is more than doubtful. In the great seventeenth-century struggle between the crown and Parliament he was at most a helpless spectator with small prospect of immediate gain whichever side won. The Revolution of 1688 was accomplished without reference to him and, except in so far as his religious life was concerned, without direct relation to him. The rise of the cabinet in the eighteenth century took place in the clouds above his head. All these momentous changes were indispensable preliminaries to the democratization of the English government in the nineteenth century. They formed part of the precious political inheritance of the English workingman, but they came in the days before he entered the political scene.

There was, however, another movement for political reform in England which developed contemporaneously with the Industrial Revolution in which the workingman did play a part. This movement received its impulse in part from America and in part from the writings of the French political philosophers. It proceeded from the governing classes themselves, was not at all radical in its purposes, and it approached the vener-

able edifice of the English constitution with a reverence akin to idolatry. But it did admit the possibility of improvement and even advocated moderate changes in the direction of enlarging the representative character of the House of Commons.

With the outbreak of the French Revolution this reforming spirit was quickened and to some extent it was changed. It became rather more doctrinaire in character and lost something of its respect for prescriptive right. But except in a few instances it never drifted far from its ancient moorings. During the early days of the Revolution it expressed itself in the organization of reform societies designed to agitate for such moderate changes in the English constitution as would bring it into closer accord with the principles enunciated in the American Declaration of Independence and the French Bill of Rights. Most of these societies were middle- and upper-class affairs recruited from among men who were already voters. But there was one of another order. Its founder was Thomas Hardy, a master-shoemaker who kept a shop in Piccadilly. Hardy's first notion was to form a society of the unrepresented masses. Later he enlarged his plan so as to exclude no one who was not physically or morally unfit. But by fixing the membership fees at a penny a week he left the door open for the workingmen, and workingmen came in in large numbers. This so-called London Corresponding Society was not the only one of its kind. There was another founded in Sheffield in 1791 by a few mechanics, which numbered at one time 2,400 members. And there were at least twenty or thirty others. Most of what is known about these popular organizations has been gathered from the testimony of their enemies. But it is clear enough that they set themselves resolutely against violent methods. Though they advocated an extension of the franchise to the working classes and a redistribution of parliamentary districts in accordance with the distribution of population, they proposed no more than could be secured by peaceful and constitutional courses. The only revolution which they desired was, in Wellington's famous phrase, "revolution by due process of law."

From the point of view of the political progress of the workingman the interesting thing about these popular societies is that they represent practically the first organized attempt by the modern workingman to secure a place for himself in the English body politic. How widespread the movement was it is difficult to say. Hardy at one time estimated the total membership of the London Corresponding Society at 20,000, but it is doubtful if it ever numbered half that many. Of the other popular societies scattered throughout England not even the wildest guess

at their numbers is possible. This much, however, may be said on the authority of Francis Place, who probably knew more about the matter than anyone else, "that vast numbers of the thinking part of the working people joined the London Corresponding Society as they did other reforming Societies in various parts of England."

There is very little evidence to show any connection between the economic grievances of industrial workers and their political activity at this time, and none at all to connect their political clubs with their trade unions. No doubt they entertained hopes that political reform would improve their lot. Who does not? But the impulses which directly provoked their interest in these matters appear to have been in the main the same as those which prompted their superiors. There is no appreciable difference between the program of a democratic club like the London Corresponding Society and that of an aristocratic club like the Friends of the People. Both alike were stirred less by considerations of necessity or of expediency than by principles of abstract justice. Both indorsed with equal enthusiasm the French Rights of Man. Both for the time forsook their stations in the social and economic order and stood together on the broad generous platform of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity. It is to the great glory of them both that this was so, and one of the most hopeful signs of the times.

Unfortunately, however, this reform movement was destined to a very short life. At first the French Revolution had been acclaimed with enthusiasm in England. Many Englishmen regarded it as an attempt on the part of the French people to remodel their absolute government upon the English pattern. And the course of affairs in France up to June of 1791 on the whole justified that view of the matter. After that the increasing radicalism of the French movement alienated English sympathy. And in something like the way in which English sentiment toward Russia during the late war changed from enthusiastic indorsement of the overthrow of Czardom to universal condemnation of the Bolshevik régime, so it changed in the 1790's toward France as the program of Mirabeau and Lafayette gave place to the program of Danton and Robespierre. Already in 1790 Edmund Burke had thundered forth his famous defense of prescriptive right against the untested innovations from across the channel, and when war broke out against France in 1793 the great mass of English people, irrespective of class, followed Burke's lead. Political reform became at once associated in the popular mind with French propaganda and received in consequence short shrift. The government began a systematic persecution of the reform clubs; but

though government agents were active, they were no more active than popular fury. One has only to recall the raging mobs which destroyed Priestly's laboratory in Birmingham and laid siege to Dr. Parr's library at Norwich to appreciate how completely the government's policy reflected the sentiments of the vulgar multitude. The cause of parliamentary reform was in fact put *hors de combat* for a whole generation to come. Of the reformers some were let off with a warning, many were tried for treason, one or two were executed, a few sent to drag out the weary residue of their days at Botany Bay. By and large the working-class leaders suffered most severely. Hardy himself escaped the law, but he was not able to elude the mob. They attacked his house, broke his windows, and literally frightened his wife to death. His business was ruined and he spent the declining years of his life in abject poverty. As for the workingmen's reform clubs they all came to an inglorious end during the last five years of the century. As the initial effort of the English workingman in modern politics they deserve more attention than they have received, but so far as any practical results were concerned they accomplished nothing.

It is easy to abuse the governing classes for their intolerance, during these times, toward the feeble efforts of the workingman after better things political and industrial, but it must be remembered that they were times of war, that England was fighting for her very life against the greatest military genius that the world has perhaps ever seen, and that any movement calculated to distract her efforts from that grim business savored strongly of disloyalty if not of treason. Perhaps the employing classes exploited this war spirit for their own purposes, but we should not make the mistake of assuming that they called it forth. We know by experience how tense and intolerant the popular mind becomes under the strain of war and how apt it is to call bad names and to do cruel things. We have had our modern equivalents for the opprobrious terms which were hurled at our democratic forefathers who dared to speak of liberty in the heat of the fight. For that reason we can perhaps understand and to some extent even sympathize with those repressive measures which the English government in Napoleon's day thought it necessary to take.

The first fifty years of the nineteenth century were very significant years in the political progress of the workingman not so much for what he actually gained in political power—he gained indeed almost nothing —but for what he learned about it. They educated him for citizenship. So many factors contributed to his education that if I were to consider

them all, or even hint at them all, I should be led too far afield. Certainly I should have to trace the development of popular education and the rise of the cheap newspaper press. But in the time at my command I shall have to neglect these broader cultural aspects of the question and confine myself to matters of more immediate significance.

The economic factor can certainly not be neglected. Probably it was the most potent of all forces which drove the modern workingman into politics. He was never much of a political thinker, and neither political nor social theories appealed to him particularly strongly upon their abstract merits. He was merely a poor man trying to provide bread and butter for himself and his family in a hard world. When he was hungry and cold he was ready to support all kinds of plans for change. When he was not he was usually content to leave the mysteries of government to his betters. Consequently his progress in politics was spasmodic. It made fair headway in periods of industrial depression; it came virtually to a standstill in periods of industrial prosperity. But the stages of his political progress by no means corresponded with the stages in the progress of political reform. By a strange perverseness, the times when the workingman put forth his greatest efforts to effect a change were, generally speaking, the times in which the least change was made. The ruling classes would not be coerced, and the arguments in favor of enfranchising the workingman lost force in proportion as he showed himself to be a violent and a turbulent fellow.

During the Napoleonic Wars the English workingman was on the whole better off than he had been before them or than he was to be after them. Notwithstanding Napoleon's attempts to strangle the English shopkeeper English industry gained more than it lost by war conditions. Prices were high, the demand for commodities generally exceeded the supply, and though wages did not increase in proportion to prices there was plenty of work to be had. It cannot be said that the English workingman was contented during this period, but at least his discontent was not so great but that it could be easily held in check by the stern, repressive policy of the government.

With the ending of the wars in 1815 there came a very decided change for the worse. For one thing the crops were bad, for another the English factories anticipating an enormous demand from the Continent produced far more than impoverished Europe, eager as it was to buy, could absorb. English warehouses were in consequence glutted with goods. English factories shut down and the English workingman found himself out of a job just at the time when bad harvests and bad corn laws were

conspiring together to make the cost of living higher than ever. Out of this condition of affairs was born active industrial discontent, which in the course of the next two or three years expressed itself in all sorts of violent forms. Much of it was mere hunger crying for bread; much of it the blind striking out of desperate men convinced that their condition could be no worse and might be better. In general it lacked organization and it lacked leadership. On that account it submitted readily to the guidance of popular demagogues like Hunt the orator and Cobbett the journalist. Neither Hunt nor Cobbett were themselves of the industrial working class. Both of them were in fact country bred and both began their political careers as staunch supporters of the established order. Both also were converted to the cause of parliamentary reform rather through contact with upper-class radicals than through more popular channels. They addressed their appeal not to the workingmen in particular but to the unrepresented classes in general, and the political agitation which developed under their stimulus cannot be accurately designated a workingman's movement, though it recruited most of its strength in the great industrial centers of the north. Of the two, Hunt was the more striking and more popular figure though Cobbett was the more influential. In their different ways they furnished the two channels through which ideas of parliamentary reform found their way from the studies of the theorists to the minds of the crowd, the channel of the public meeting and the channel of the cheap newspaper press. Their program was modest enough. It involved little more than a moderate extension of the franchise. They were able to accomplish such spectacular performances in its support as the assembly of 80,000 in St. Peter's Fields at Manchester. But they did not succeed even by such tremendous demonstrations in converting the governing classes. The official answer to the crowd in St. Peter's Fields was the Peterloo Massacre, and the official counter-check to public meetings and cheap newspapers was to prohibit the one and suppress the other. For these and for other reasons, among which improving business was not the least, the agitation died down after 1820. Immediately it led nowhere, but it was not without its value in the political progress of the workingman. It served much more effectually than the revolutionary societies to awaken his political consciousness and it gave him for all times to come his cheap newspaper.

Perhaps also it did serve indirectly to quicken an interest in political reform among the governing classes. It is, however, probable that the peace and prosperity which followed 1820 were a great deal more effective in promoting reform than were the disturbances and distress of the years

which preceded. Anyway, during the 1820's the cause of parliamentary reform gained steadily in strength until it won for itself a place in the program of the Whig opposition. Exactly what the Whigs proposed to do about it was not made clear. There were radicals in the party like Sir Francis Burdett who favored the complete enfranchisement of the workingman. The leaders were not prepared to go that far. They were indeed rather noncommittal, but the man in the street got the impression that when they came into power they would amend matters.

When the Whigs came into power in 1830 they brought forward a bill to extend the franchise and to rearrange the electoral districts. As a concession to the workingman this Great Reform Bill was a complete disappointment. It gave him, in short, nothing, but it admitted at least the necessity for change and it made the way easier for further changes later on. On these grounds he was led to support it. Of course he could do no more than exert pressure from the outside. But some pressure he did exert. How much it is impossible to say. In Birmingham and in London clever middle-class leaders like Atwood and Place were able to organize large political unions in support of the bill, and these unions though they were not workingmen's associations included a large working-class element. There was also a good deal of workingman striking and and workingman machine-smashing, though probably not much of this was consciously designed to coerce the reluctant king and the even more reluctant House of Lords. This much is clear, that the Great Reform Bill was emphatically not a concession to the demands of the workingman notwithstanding that he did exert some of his strength outside of Parliament to assist in its final passage.

By long-concerted shouting for "the Bill, the whole Bill, and nothing but the Bill" the English workingman had persuaded himself that with the passage of the Bill all his woes would end. He soon discovered that all his efforts had merely served to advance the political fortunes of the shopkeepers. His enthusiasm gave place to disillusionment, and this disillusionment was simply embittered when the first reformed Parliament met and proceeded to amend the old Poor Law in such a fashion as to rob him of the casual relief he had heretofore received from the state in hard times. No doubt there was much to be said for this measure, but to the poor man who had looked hopefully forward to redemption at the hands of the new Parliament it seemed like a piece of cold and calculated tyranny. On the whole he felt that he had lost rather than gained by intermeddling in middle-class politics. The immediate effect was to disgust him with parliamentary reform and to impel him strongly toward socialism.

An undercurrent of socialism runs through the political course of the English workingman from the early 1820's onward. He has never pinned his faith to the nostrums of the Socialists with anything like the fervor which the German workingman has, but he has been tempted to try them again and again, particularly at times when the hope of relief by political action seemed unusually desperate.

It would take too long to trace the history of English socialism from its simple communistic beginnings in the Middle Ages to the position which it had reached when Robert Owen began to preach its gospel in New Lanark. Its rapid development in the 1820's was largely the product of industrial distress. The general position of the Socialists of that time was that the existing industrial evils were the inevitable result of private ownership of the means of production. Some of them were merely concerned with pointing out that fact. Others were ready with remedies. The extremists like Thomas Hodgkin frankly advocated class war. The moderates like John Gray and William Thompson deprecated conflict, and argued strongly for a system based upon mutual aid and co-operation. The solution which Owen himself proposed was the establishment of small communities run upon a co-operative basis in which the inhabitants were to work together and to share the results of their labor in common. Some of these men were merely closet philosophers, but some of them set out at once to win the workingman to their way of thinking. Owen, as it is well known, actually established model communities to demonstrate his theories and published a newspaper in London to expound them. Hodgkin lectured in workingmen's clubs. And there can be no doubt that even before the Great Reform Bill was passed their ideas were widespread among the working classes.

The medium which served to best purpose in disseminating them was the trade union, from which the legal ban had been removed in 1824.

During the two years following 1832 the trade unions not only grew rapidly in numbers but they also developed rapidly in organization. And they became strongly imbued with socialistic ideas, particularly of the Owenite variety. Unorganized workers organized, allied unions began to federate. In the early spring of 1834 under Owen's own guidance a Grand Consolidated Union of all the trades was created in London. Owen, still true to his pacifistic purposes, had no notion that this organization should be used to coerce the capitalists. There were others, however, like William Benbow who thought differently and who saw in it an instrument by which they might violently overthrow the whole bad state of industrial society. This group preached the gospel of direct action

and the general strike, and tried to draw the Grand Consolidated after them. Owen's influence was strong enough to prevent their success, though he never came anywhere near achieving his own purposes. His consolidated union had a short, a quarrelsome, and a thoroughly unproductive life.

But the forces which destroyed it were not so much the contentions at headquarters as the general failure which attended the efforts of local trade unions to enforce their local demands. There was an enormous amount of local striking in the years 1833 and 1834, provoked generally by the old grievances, but inspired often by hazy visions of a better industrial order. They were for the most part badly organized and badly led and notwithstanding the imposing aspect of their national federation they lacked any real unity of action or of purpose. Their widespread character frightened the employing classes and even frightened the government, but the measures which were taken against them were in excess of the requirements. All that was really needed was a little patience in order that starvation might work its way. In the end starvation was the *force majeure* which overcame them.

As a step in the political progress of the workingman this trade-union movement of the early 1830's deserves attention rather for what it failed to do than for what it did. Its political program, if it had any political program at all, was the overthrow of the existing industrial order. Its method of procedure, so far as there was any method in its madness, was the industrial strike. In a rather ill-defined sort of way it represented an early adventure of the English workingman in revolutionary syndicalism. And its failure served very effectually, in England at any rate, to discredit that way to the millennium. Immediately it had a disastrous effect upon the trade unions. Many were dissolved, and those which survived suffered a large loss of membership. And it developed in them also a cautious and a canny attitude. Hereafter, for over a generation to come they abandoned politics altogether, they turned their eyes resolutely away from the beatific visions of the socialists and addressed themselves to the grim business of wringing a decent living out of the world as it was.

But outside the narrow limits of the trade-union world hope was not yet dead, though it was chastened. The flower of that hope was the Chartist Movement.

It is difficult to generalize about Chartism, so many elements went into the making of it, but the essential fact about it is that it was a workingman's movement, the first great movement to be engineered and controlled by workingmen in modern times. In its more orderly aspects

it did not differ greatly from the modern English labor movement, though of course it was dealing with unfranchised workers and not with voters. Its ultimate purposes were socialistic, though the socialism of its leaders was of the Owenite not of the Marxian variety. But its immediate purposes were political. The Peoples Charter which embodied its program was in brief a demand that the workingman should enjoy an equal place in the body politic with every other class in the community, that he should be able not only to vote but to sit in Parliament. The expectation of its leaders was that once the workingman was able to exert his strength at the polls, the social revolution would easily and peaceably be brought about by due process of law. But they directed their efforts toward winning the vote.

The movement began with a small group of Owenites in London who still kept the faith and still preached it. William Lovett, a cabinetmaker, and Henry Hetherington, a compositor, were the conspicuous members of the group. In 1829 they had organized a small society of London workingmen for the propagation of Owenite ideas. During the agitation for the Reform Bill they stood aloof, and they took very little part in the trade-union movement which followed it. Their enthusiasm for the reorganization of society upon a co-operative basis remained undiminished and they were satisfied that the change could only be effected by the transfer of industrial control from the capitalists to the workers. They were, however, unalterably opposed to class war, not only because it was inconsistent with the principle of co-operation, but also because they thought it unnecessary. They had sufficient faith in the validity of their ideas to believe that in the long run they would win the support of all classes upon their merits. We should perhaps classify Lovett and his colleagues among the Utopians. But seven years of successive disappointments had taught them this much practical wisdom, that the best ideas in the world could not be realized without organized effort and a definite plan of procedure. From 1836 onward they began to concern themselves much less with the proclamation of their purposes and much more with the devising of ways and means. They came to perceive that the peaceful way to deliverance lay through the ballot box, and, though they always regarded parliamentary reform merely as a means to larger social ends, they were satisfied that once the working classes could exert their numerical strength at the polls the rest would be easy. So they undertook to prepare a program of political reform and to rally the workingmen in England at large to the support of it. In such wise the Chartist Movement of the late 1830's and the 1840's was born.

It took its name, of course, from the Peoples Charter which Lovett drafted with Place's assistance and published in 1838. The contents of this famous document embodied very little that was new. Many of its demands had been put forward by the Levellers in the seventeenth century. They were briefly six—manhood suffrage, vote by ballot, abolition of property qualifications for membership in Parliament, equal electoral districts, and annual parliaments. These demands looked radical enough in 1838, but the best proof that they did not imply revolution lies in the fact that every one of them except the last has since been realized by the peaceful, constitutional methods which Lovett advocated. Indeed, in the Peoples Charter, Lovett pretty clearly defined the course which parliamentary reform in England was subsequently to follow.

In formulating their program Lovett and his coadjutors could draw upon the accumulated wisdom of at least two centuries of effort. Their more difficult problem lay in organizing popular support behind it, for precedent there offered them no guide though it furnished many warnings. The political unions of 1832 had accomplished much but their strength had been recruited largely from the middle classes and their effort had registered merely a middle-class triumph. Lovett's followers were determined that they would have no repetition of that performance. At the beginning anyway they were resolved to confine their organization to the working classes. The trade unions offered an alternative, but the trade unions had already tried and failed and were in no temper for a further effort. The organization upon which Lovett and his friends finally hit was an association of workers, the objects of which, as he himself stated them, was "*to draw into one bond of unity the intelligent and influential working classes in town and country, to seek by every legal means to place all classes of society in possession of equal political and social rights.*" Its membership was rigidly restricted to genuine workingmen, though a few honorary members, like Francis Place, were admitted from the middle class. It did not discriminate between industrial and agricultural workers and it clearly rested upon quite a different foundation from the trade unions. Most of its subsequent strength was, however, drawn from the trades.

The organization began with the foundation of a Workingman's Association in London in 1836 which set about at once to encourage the formation of similar associations in the country at large. It issued pamphlets, it published a newspaper, in the spring of 1837 it began to send forth missionaries. And everywhere its propaganda met with amazing success. Before the end of 1837 over a hundred workingmen's associations

modeled after its pattern and supporting its program had sprung into being. But its influence was not confined to orderly little debating societies. In the north its ideas took hold like wildfire not so much because of their reasonable appeal as because the north was seething once more with industrial discontent. The year 1836 marked the beginning of another industrial depression in the great northern manufacturing centers which grew more serious in 1837 and 1838. It was attended by its usual accompaniments, decreasing wages and increasing unemployment. The industrial workers began to grow hungry from lack of food and cold from lack of firewood. They became desperate, violent, ready to grasp at anything which promised relief. Whatever Chartism was to thoughtful men like Lovett and Hetherington, in the north it was a cry of distress, the shout of men, women, and children drowning in deep waters. Carlyle called it the bitter discontent grown fierce and wild. Stephens, one of its own leaders, declared that it was not a political question but a knife-and-fork question. There were in fact two distinct elements in the Chartist Movement almost from the first, there was the moderate element with a well-digested program, a definite organization, and a deliberate plan of action, and there was a vast disorganized incoherent element shouting for the Charter because for very misery they had to shout for something and careless of means so long as deliverance in some form came quickly.

So far as Lovett and the moderates were able to direct its course Chartism remained true to its original program and its original plan of action. Its organization reached perhaps its highest perfection in 1840 when all the local associations were grouped in county units and a central executive committee was established in London. Its constitutional course of action was the circulation of petitions among its members and the presentation of these petitions to the House of Commons. All this was as it should be and well within the law. The difficulty was that it buttered no bread, and though Lovett and his moderates might be willing to repeat the process indefinitely the hungry men in the north lost patience. They became a prey in consequence to hot-headed demagogues like Fergus O'Connor who sneered at Lovett and his "moral philosophers" and preached the gospel of physical force. How far O'Connor himself favored an actual appeal to arms is difficult to determine. He had a way of denying on Tuesday what he had affirmed on Monday. But at all events the effect of his teaching was, on the one hand, to drive the moderates out of the movement and on the other to encourage acts of violence which brought down upon Chartism the full force of the law.

It was the influence of men like O'Connor that provoked the Newport Rising in 1839 and accounted for the attempt to organize a general strike, better known as the Plug Plot, in 1842. Both of these attempts were ridiculous failures. The fact was that though the O'Connorites were good stump orators, as organizers and leaders of violent revolution they lacked every essential virtue. Yet O'Connor was the commanding figure in the movement from 1842 until almost the end. He was not a workingman, he was not even an Englishman. His qualifications were his rollicking Irish personality and his exceptional capacity for self-advertisement. As a type of workingman agitator he is not unfamiliar even in these enlightened times. The chief instrument of his control, omitting his glib tongue, was his newspaper, the *Northern Star*, which he was able by astute journalism to make the one single organ of the Chartist world. There is some reason to believe that he was not above promoting agitation as a means of increasing its circulation. Anyway he was perhaps the single figure in the movement who managed to make Chartism pay handsomely.

His breach with Lovett and the moderates had the effect of driving them toward middle-class radicalism and for a time in 1842 it looked as though there might be a coalition of the two elements in Joseph Sturge's Complete Suffrage Movement. But middle-class contempt for working-class leaders and the refusal of Sturge and his associates to indorse the Charter as it stood prevented. Yet the attempt was of importance, for it indicated the weakening of class antagonism on both sides and foreshadowed the alliance of labor and liberalism which came later.

In view of the fact that most of what the Chartists strove for has since been achieved it is hard to reproach them with failure. Yet fail they did, for the cause which they fought for had not the slightest measure of success until long after they had ceased to fight. The reasons for their failure were manifold. The inevitable incapacity of their leaders and the dissensions among them had a great deal to do with it. The opposition of the middle classes, supported by the whole power of the state, had a great deal to do with it also. Probably one of the most important factors was the lack of correspondency between their program and their real purpose. The strength of Chartism lay in its protest against social and industrial evils which the famous six points scarcely touched. It was political in its form but social in its content. On that account its development and its decline were really determined by what Carlyle called the condition-of-England question. Its strength ebbed and flowed with the flow and ebb of industrial prosperity. The forces

which gave it birth were much more the desperate state of the north than they were the reasonable principles of Lovett and his friends. It languished during the relatively prosperous years between 1842 and 1845; the temporary depression of 1847 combined with the general unrest which prevailed in Europe in 1848 revived it for a season, but it petered out in the 1850's for lack of food to feed upon. The arguments in favor of the Charter were just as valid in the fifties as they had been in the early forties but the driving force of misery was lacking, or at any rate was greatly weakened. Whether it was because the repeal of the Corn Laws had cheapened bread, or because factory legislation had corrected some of the worst abuses of the system, or because in the general prosperity there was more work to be had and better wages to be earned, the workingman was enough better off in the 1850's to lose interest in political panaceas however much they promised. Things appeared to be coming his way in the natural course of events and with bread on the table and a fire on the hearth he could afford to bide his time.

Notwithstanding all of which, he was a wiser man and a better man for his experience, and if not directly yet ultimately Chartism contributed largely to his political progress. It was his first great political effort of modern times and it taught him lessons in self-government and self-control which he badly needed to learn and which were to stand him in good stead later. It revealed him also in rather less lurid colors to the governing classes and showed him to be neither so stupid nor so terrible as their untutored imaginations had painted him. And so, although it was essentially a class movement it helped to break down class barriers and to prepare the way for that mutual respect upon which modern democracy must be based.

The collapse of Chartism drove the workingman once again away from parliamentary reform and into trade unionism. And his political activity during the next thirty years was in the main exerted through his trade-union organization. Indeed the history of his political progress from the 1850's to the present day is by and large the history of the political progress of the English trade unions. This is not altogether so, but it is so nearly so that the development of trade unionism is easily the most important factor to be considered.

The trade unions revealed a truly remarkable growth during the two decades following 1850, a growth not only in numbers but also in the development of their organization. For one thing they became more business-like. A few bitter experiences revealed to them the fact that the ordinary workingman, however honest and however popular he might

be, did not necessarily make a good administrative officer or a good financial manager. This was a useful lesson in itself, and its educational value was far-reaching. Immediately it resulted in the rise of a new type of trade-union official who was selected for the purpose by reason of his superior business capacity and who was paid a salary in order that he might devote his whole time to the task. This meant that trade unions got to be better led and better organized, that their funds were more judiciously managed and their strength more wisely exerted. For another thing, the trade unions began to amalgamate. Local unions of the same trade drew together into national confederations, unions of allied trades combined. The first great amalgamation of this sort was that of the engineering trades under the leadership of William Allan. This example was followed by the carpenters under Robert Applegarth, and this in turn by others. By 1860 a number of the more important trades were united in great national unions with headquarters in London and branches in every important industrial center in England.

One effect of this national consolidation in the same trade was to enable the national unions of different trades more readily to co-operate. Their leaders in London came into almost daily contact one with the other and a small group of them presently emerged as the guiding spirits of the whole organized English labor world. Of these William Allan, the engineer, Robert Applegarth, the carpenter, Daniel Guile, of the iron founders, Edmund Coulson, of the bricklayers, and George Ogden, of the shoemakers, were the conspicuous figures. They were all close friends, all men of high character and exceptional business capacity, all men of the world, not easily to be distinguished by their dress or their manners or their educational equipment from the rank and file of the employers who confronted them. In themselves as well as in their solidarity they contributed greatly to the strength of the trade-union cause. Workingmen as they were, and in absolute sympathy with their untutored followers, they were yet able to meet and deal with business men and politicians on their own ground and in their own jargon. The days of the workingman leader with a knotted bandana about his throat, who stood fumbling his cap before his betters, was past.

These new leaders were in an admirable position to direct the strength of the workingman toward political reform and they might have done so had not the memory of Chartist failures created in the minds of their constituents a strong aversion from any further intermeddling in such matters. This aversion was strongly reflected in the local trade unions. It was not in fact to any marked degree overcome before the very end of

the last century. The only kind of political activity which the local trades were disposed to countenance was the kind which sought to secure legislation favorable to their own union interests. They felt strong enough to fight their own battles. All they wanted was a free field and no favor. And this attitude was generally speaking reflected in the political conduct of their leaders. Allan, Applegarth, and the rest were more interested in securing the passage of laws admitting the trade unions to legal status and conceding their right to strike than they were in promoting the extension of the franchise or a fair arrangement of electoral districts. Indeed the local trades even looked askance at an increase of government control or of government regulation of industrial affairs. It was not until the 1880's that they were prepared to indorse bills for shortening the hours of labor or providing for unemployment. All such matters they felt could better be arranged by free barter, supported by the boycott and the strike. In fact, both in his political and in his social creed the organized workingman of the 1870's was as ardent a supporter of the principles of laissez faire as was the stoutest Corn Leaguer in Manchester.

The consequence was that organized labor as such played a very small part in the promotion of the parliamentary reform bills of 1867 and of 1884. We should expect to find the industrial workers in particular very much interested in the agitation for the extension of the franchise in the 1860's since its main purpose was to secure the vote for them. Yet it was not until Gladstone's reform bill of 1866 had been defeated that they took any concerted action, and then it proceeded from a nondescript organization which sprang up in opposition to the amalgamated trades. And it is not recorded that even this body accomplished any more than one single demonstration at Chelsea. No doubt workingmen gathered in crowds and shouted for reform. They even broke windows and tore up fence railings. But there have always been a sufficient number of them available to stage performances of that sort for any cause. Almost every crowd that has ever gathered has been mainly a workingman's crowd, but it has not always by any means represented a workingman's movement, though it has sometimes been convenient to describe it as such.

It may as well be admitted that the real strength behind every reform bill passed in the nineteenth century was middle-class strength and the sentiments which formulated them middle-class sentiments. They did not come in response to the demands of the unfranchised workers but in response to a reasonable conviction on the part of those who already

enjoyed political power. They mark important stages in the political progress of the workingman in that they gradually elevated him to a position in which he could exercise political power. But the gift was conferred from above, not exacted from below. And it registers rather the progress of the middle classes toward democracy than any real progress of the workingman in politics.

With the passage of Disraeli's reform bill in 1867 the rank and file of the workingmen got the vote and the opportunity which they had long demanded, of exerting their strength at the polls. In the days of the Levellers or of the Chartists this would have appeared a long stride toward the millennium. But the steps which the workingman of 1867 took to realize his new opportunity were feeble and halting to say the least. Trade-union officials confined their efforts to urging the workers to make sure that their names got on the voting lists. The only attempt at an organized labor party was the creation of a Labour Representation League in London in 1869, formed mainly for the return of workingmen to Parliament. But even that did not get under way until after the first election under the new Reform Bill, and until 1874 it did not succeed in securing the return of a single workingman's candidate to Parliament. This meager result was partly due to the League's lack of resources, but it was mainly due to the failure of the workingman to support his own fellows. From the very first he showed his preference for candidates of social position. His class feeling, which was strong enough in his industrial organization, he did not carry over into political action. Other sentiments, far older sentiments, prevailed with him there—deference for those above him in social station, old traditions of a ruling class, distrust of his own capacity to sustain the political and particularly the social responsibilities of public office. We may say if we like that he had not yet thrown off the habits of mind formed under a feudal régime. At any rate he was, in 1868, no more a democrat than those above him. No labor party was formed in that year because no labor party could be formed. Labor itself would not suffer it. And the immediate effect of giving the workingman the vote was simply to increase the constituents of the two old parties. The workingman does not seem to have discriminated much between the two. The Conservatives won almost as much support from him in the three elections following 1867 as did the Liberals.

Yet it is undoubted that his influence in politics was very strikingly increased by his securing of the franchise. Though no labor party came at once into existence a labor vote did. It would have been more effective

if it had been better organized, but it was there, old party leaders realized that it was there and began to adjust their program accordingly.

They began also to listen with more deference to the demands of trade-union officials. In 1868 an annual congress of all the trade unions was established, and it met thereafter regularly in London and regularly appointed a parliamentary committee to look after the interests of the trade unions in Parliament. Allan, Applegarth, and their group dominated this committee and through it they were able to exercise a great deal of influence on legislation. It does not appear that they made any systematic attempt to align the labor vote in support of their parliamentary program. Nevertheless a connection existed. There is, for example, good reason to believe that the Liberals were defeated in the elections of 1874 because of Gladstone's refusal to repeal the law against strikes.

It has been remarked more than once that trade unionism in England thrives in prosperous times and declines in periods of industrial depression. We may then ascribe the remarkable growth of trade unions between 1867 and 1875 in large part to the extraordinarily favorable business conditions which prevailed during those years. In 1874 this prosperity suddenly came to an end and was followed by a long period of hard times. The effect upon the workingman was as usual very distressing. Wages went down, hours went up, unemployment increased by leaps and bounds. The trade unions, which were almost all of them mutual-benefit societies, were hard put to it to provide support for their idle members. It was futile to organize strikes when employers were only too glad of an excuse to close down their factories for a season. In fact the trade unions were helpless to cope with a situation which was rapidly becoming desperate. The politicians were equally helpless. Liberal leaders were prepared to support a further extension of the franchise, but it was pretty clear that the franchise would not feed the hungry and clothe the naked. Yet the politicians had nothing further to suggest.

But the Socialists had. Once more they appeared upon the scene, and this time they brought a quiver full of arguments borrowed from the armory of Karl Marx himself. Their new gospel was not in essentials so very different from their old one. Like Owen they insisted that the recurrent evils of industrial society sprang from the defects of the industrial organization. Like Owen they denounced capitalistic control of the means of production and demanded for the workingman the whole produce of his labor. But in place of Owen's co-operative communities they proposed to substitute national control. Most of them agreed with

Lovett that the means of salvation lay through the ballot box and they intended to accomplish social revolution by organizing the full voting strength of the workingman in its support.

Their program demanded immediate political action and it ran counter to the accepted policy of the Amalgamated Trades. Nevertheless they found stout champions in the trade-union ranks, particularly in John Burns and Tom Mann. For something like five years these ardent young socialists contended in the Trade Union Congresses with the old champions of laissez faire trade-unionism. And in 1890, thanks partly to the great victory of Burns and Mann in the dock-workers' strike of 1889, they finally won the day. The effect of their success was far-reaching. It involved the definite abandonment by the trade unions of their old policy of letting general politics alone and committed them to a program of social legislation for which they could hardly expect support from either of the existing parties.

It was from this new unionism of the early 1890's that the English Labour Party was born in 1899. Its birthday marks the definite re-entry of the trade union into the field of general politics. It marks even more than that. It marks the beginning of an effort on the part of the trade unions to dominate the politics of the workingman. For the English Labour Party as it was originally constituted limited its membership to trade unionists and to members of a few relatively small affiliated organizations. Naturally it courted the support of the whole workingman vote, but it made no place for unorganized labor in its councils. It was in fact a party run in the interests of labor by a trade-union committee.

It first began to play an active part in politics in the election of 1905. Before that time workingmen had been elected to Parliament. Indeed a scattered few had won seats in every election since 1874, but their success represented the result of local efforts and they stood on no common platform, though they did attempt to follow a concerted plan of action after they took their seats. Usually they went by the name of the Liberal-Labour group. In the election of 1906 the new labor party secured the return of twenty-nine members. These, combined with the Liberal-Labour group, gave the workingman a fighting strength of some fifty in the House of Commons. In the election of 1910 they lost a few seats, but by reason of the more evenly balanced strength of the two great parties their parliamentary position was really stronger.

From 1906 until the outbreak of the war they worked in close harmony with the Liberals and their influence upon liberal policy was very considerable. If one considers the social legislation passed in the House

of Commons since 1905 the strength of that influence is apparent. Old-age pensions, national insurance against sickness, disability, and unemployment, child welfare acts, sweatshop regulations, minimum wage laws, and national employment bureaus—all of these demanded by Labor have been conceded by Liberalism. In fact the whole trend of social legislation during the last two decades in England has to a considerable extent justified the assertion that Labor was leading Liberalism by the nose.

From the point of view of that democratic ideal which admits no distinction between class and class the fundamental defect of the English Labour Party as it existed before the war was that it did create such a distinction and sought to emphasize it. Practically the only group outside the organized labor group which it admitted to its councils was the Socialists. Though it did not indorse class war it provided the means for it and offered special privileges to the one group in the middle-class ranks which preached it. It had another grave defect in that it did not completely represent the very workingmen which it aimed to serve because it was fundamentally a federation of trade unionists and not a free-for-all workingman's party. The Great War just passed revealed to its leaders both of these defects and set them at work to correct them. In 1917 the Labour Party was completely reorganized. Instead of a trade-union affair it was converted into a national democratic party, which, though recognizing the unions, based its organization upon local party associations. Membership in these associations was thrown open to every hand worker and brain worker who accepted the constitution of the party and subscribed to its program. In fact the Labour Party virtually placed itself upon the same footing as the other two great parties in the kingdom. It not only threw off the shackles of the trade unions but it also definitely rejected the Marxian principle of political organization along class lines. For though it proposed to limit its membership to hand workers and brain workers there were few in England who would fail technically to qualify under one or the other of these categories. At the same time it stated its program rather more explicitly than it ever had before, but with no essential change. Arthur Henderson stands today on much the same platform that William Lovett stood 80 years ago—*A reorganization of industrial society along socialistic lines to be accomplished gradually and by due process of law.* Lovett would perhaps have deleted the work *gradually*, but labor leaders were more hopeful of an immediate millennium in his day than they are now.

I have paid a great deal of attention to the evolution of the Labour Party because it is the one political movement of present-day England

which has been beyond question a workingman movement. But it never has commanded anything like the full strength of the workingman in politics. The best showing it ever made in a parliamentary election was in December, 1918, when it returned sixty-one members to the House of Commons out of a total of over six hundred. This means that the majority of the workingmen never have supported the Labour Party platform at the polls. Most of them are still to be found in the ranks of the Liberals and of the Conservatives. And the influence of the workingman in modern English politics has been much more potent in modifying the program of the old middle-class parties than it has been in promoting the program of its own. The practical consideration behind the reorganization of the Labour Party in 1917 was probably the realization by its leaders after nearly forty years of effort that class politics, successful as they were in continental Europe, could not be made to go in England. The Labour Party as a workingman's party was a failure, and it was on the whole well for English democracy that it was so. For democracy must build its hopes not on class distinction but on class co-operation, not on interests which conflict but on interests which conform.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

There is a great mass of literature bearing on almost every phase of this subject though there is nothing which deals with it as a whole. It may be worth while to suggest some of the more useful books for a more detailed study. On the early craft guilds one of the best brief accounts is in E. Lipson, *An Introduction to the Economic History of England*, I, chap. vii. On the decay of the craft guilds, cf. G. Unwin, *Industrial Organization in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries*, and also, for less detailed accounts, W. J. Ashley, *The Economic Organization of England*, chaps. ii, v; and J. A. Hobson, *The Evolution of Modern Capitalism*. For the Levellers Movement, G. P. Gooch, *English Democratic Ideas in the Seventeenth Century*, and T. C. Pease, *The Levellers Movement*, may be consulted. There is no single adequate study of the Industrial Revolution in English. Its earlier phases are admirably discussed in P. Mantoux, *La Révolution industrielle au XVIIIme siècle en Angleterre*. There are three volumes by J. L. and Barbara Hammond which cover well the effect of the Industrial Revolution upon the workingman. They are entitled: (1) *The Village Labourer, 1760–1832;* (2) *The Town Labourer, 1760–1822;* (3) *The Skilled Labourer, 1760–1832*. The effect of the French Revolution upon political reform in England is well handled in G. S. Veitch, *The Genesis of Parliamentary Reform*, and in E. R. Kent, *The Early English Radicals*. A convenient annual survey of economic conditions in England from 1800 to 1832 will be found in W. Smart, *Economic Annals of the Nineteenth Century*. G. Slater, *The Making of Modern England*, chaps. i, iv, is particularly good on the situation immediately following the Napoleonic Wars. For the unrest associated with the passage of the Great Reform Bill, cf. J. R. M. Butler, *The Passing of the Great Reform Bill*, chaps. i, iii, vi. G. Wallas, *Life of Francis Place*, is easily the best thing on the political unions of 1832. The rise of English socialism and the views of the English socialists of the 1820's are well treated in M. Beer, *A History of English Socialism*, I.

On the origin of the English trade unions and on their whole history there is one excellent book, S. and B. Webb, *History of Trade Unionism*, of which a new edition has just appeared. Cf. also George Howell, *Labour Legislation, Labour Movements and Labour Leaders*. On contemporary English trade unions the *English Labour Year Book*, particularly the volume for 1916, contains a fund of excellent material. The Chartist Movement has been much written about in English and in German, though the best study is in French, i.e., E. Dolléans, *Le Chartisme, 1830–48*. In English the best single account is by Mark Hovell, *The Chartist Movement;* cf. also F. F. Rosenblatt, *The Chartist Movement in Its Social and Economic Aspects*, and F. W. Slosson, *The Decline of the Chartist Movement*. On the relations of the workingman to politics since Chartism there is very little of value. The Webbs give something in their *History of Trade Unions* and G. Howell rather more in his study of labor movements cited above. One phase of it is treated very superficially in A. W. Humphrey, *A History of Labour Representation*. Unfortunately there is no study comparable to Butler's *Passing of the Great Reform Bill* for the later reform bills of 1867 and 1884. Charles Seymour, *Electoral Reform in England and Wales*, chap. x, contains a good account of the way in which the labor vote was cast between 1867 and 1884. The history of the modern English Labor Party has yet to be written, though there is an excellent summary of the main facts in the *English Labour Year Book for 1916;* cf. also, for a rather unsympathetic account, A. L. Lowell, *The Government of England*, II, chap. xxxiii, which brings the story down to 1908. The program of the Labour Party as stated in 1917 and the reorganization in that year is very well explained in A. Henderson, *The Aims of Labour*. For a sympathetic treatment of the workingman in current English politics the English weekly, the *New Statesman*, is perhaps the best place to look. Sidney Webb's occasional contributions to the *New Republic* are excellent though not always unbiased.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

By J. SPENCER DICKERSON, *Secretary*

APPOINTMENTS

In addition to reappointments the following appointments have been made by the Board of Trustees:

Fred Terry Rogers, Assistant Professor in the Department of Physiology.

Leonard D. White, Associate in the Department of Political Science.

Appointment of Conyers Read to a non-resident professorship in the Department of History.

Employment of a visiting nurse to be under the direction of the Health Department.

Professor of Military Science and Tactics was made ex officio member of the Board of Physical Culture and Athletics.

RESIGNATIONS

The Board of Trustees has accepted the resignations of the following members of the faculties:

Yoshio Ishida, Research Instructor in the Department of Physics.

Elbert Clark, Associate Professor in the Department of Anatomy.

R. S. Bracewell, Associate in the Department of Chemistry.

Theodore B. Hinckley, Teacher in the University High School.

Lillian Cushman Brown, Instructor in Art in the College of Education.

Leo Finkelstein, Instructor in the Department of Chemistry.

Conyers Read, Professor in the Department of History.

GIFTS

The E. I. DuPont deNemours & Company Corporation renews for the year 1920–21 the gift of $750 for a Fellowship in the Department of Chemistry.

Mr. Charles R. Crane renews for another four-year period his subscription to support the work in Russian Language and Institutions.

John F. McMillan has bequeathed the sum of $1,000 as an endowment fund.

Mr. Charles H. Swift provides the sum of $500 for the expenses of a trip to Asia for scientific investigation by Assistant Professor Wellington Downing Jones of the Department of Geology.

The donor of the Theology Building in addition to the previous gift of $200,000 has pledged a further gift of $100,000 toward the erection of the building.

A donor whose name is withheld presents a collection of lithographed portraits of nineteenth- and twentieth-century authors and scientists made by William Rothenstein of London.

The National Association of Audubon Societies presents to the Museum of the School of Education a valuable collection of birds and feathers.

JOHN CRERAR

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

This sketch begins and ends with the last will and testament of John Crerar. In more respects than one that will was unique. It had the following very unusual beginning:

My father, John Crerar, a native of Scotland, died in New York when I was an infant, leaving my mother, my brother Peter and myself his only heirs. My mother remained a widow for a number of years and was then married to William Boyd. The issue of this second marriage was one son, my half brother, George William Boyd, who died unmarried in 1860. My step father died in 1864, and my mother was again left a widow with her two sons, Peter and myself. My mother died March 28, 1873, and my brother Peter died in 1883, a widower, leaving no children.

My mother's maiden name was Agnes Smeallie. She was born in Scotland in 1795 and a line of relationship on her side is clearly defined.

My first cousins are children of my late uncles, James and John Smeallie, late of Florida and West Galway, State of N.Y., brothers of my mother. Through them I have second cousins and third cousins. These cousins, first, second and third can be readily traced: some I have seen, others only heard of by the hearing of the ear.

With these explanations it remains with me to make a disposition of my estate.

I am a bachelor and was born in New York City, but have been a citizen of Chicago since 1862.

It will be noted that in this unique preface to the will the slightest possible mention is made of the father, and none whatever of any relatives on his father's side, while much is told of the mother and of first, second, and even third cousins on her side. And yet so far as the records show the Crerars were a more ancient and numerous family than the Smeallies. The Crerars appear in the earliest Scottish parish registers of marriages and births. These important records seem to have been instituted, at least in the country districts of Scotland, by the Presbyterian church when it displaced the Catholic church in the beginning of the seventeenth century. The register of the parish of Kenmore records the marriage on May 14, 1637, of "John Dow Crearar" and again in 1640 of "John Dow Crerar," evidently his second marriage. This carelessness about the spelling of family names seems to have been common in Scotland. The Crerars were a numerous family and were scattered through many parishes. They belonged to the common people and appear, for the most part, to have lived in country districts and, probably, followed agriculture.

The parish register of Dull, County of Perth, from which John Crerar's father, John, migrated to the United States when a young man, records that a John Crerar, early in 1788, married Margaret McFarland. They had three sons, Peter, born late in 1788, James, born in 1789, and John, born July 2, 1792. Peter and James married in the same parish and each had a son named Donald. One of these Donalds will appear later in this story. The youngest brother, John, apparently left the old home unmarried and settled in New York City. There he met and married Agnes Smeallie who had also migrated from Scotland to New York in her youth. Both were Presbyterians, and they doubtless found each other in the Scotch Presbyterian church to which their son, John, remained greatly attached to the end of his life. The naming of their other son Peter shows the family attachment of the father. Had there been a third son there would have been another apostolic succession, apparently, of Peter, James, and John.

Ancestors on the mother's side are not traced farther back than 1710. There are bewildering differences in the ways in which they spelled their names, as Smeallie, Smellie, Smaill, Smeal, Smalle, Smale, etc. These differences in spelling constantly occurred in the same family. In the record of the births of the three children of Alexander Smellie of the parish of Kirkliston the first-born was written Smeal, the second Smellie, the youngest Smeallie. The father of Mr. Crerar's mother, Andrew Smeall, born in 1748, was the son of John Smale. The daughter of Andrew Smeall was Agnes Smeallie, the mother of John Crerar. In his last will and testament he says she "was born in Scotland in 1795." The register of the parish of Kirkliston, however, records that she was born April 1, 1797. But this is only another evidence that the most devoted sons do not always retain in mind the exact year of their parents' birth. Where and when John Crerar, the father, and Agnes Smeallie were married does not appear nor when they migrated to the United States. We are not told the father's business and know nothing of his circumstances at the time of his death July 23, 1827. We only know that he left a widow and two sons, Peter, the elder, and John, an infant a few months old. As the will says the widow and the two sons were "his only heirs," it may, perhaps, be believed that the little family was not left destitute. This is rendered still more probable by the fact that the mother a few years later married William Boyd, a business man occupying the important and no doubt lucrative position of head of the New York branch of the iron and steel business of an English house. Whatever may have been the circumstances

of the family before, they were no doubt much improved after this marriage, and all the boys were given such education as the schools of New York City afforded.

The mother must have been a woman of character, intelligence, and attractiveness. Her sons were taken to the Scotch Presbyterian church and certainly John early became a devout and zealous Christian.

Young Crerar was a diligent student. He did not carry his education through a college course, but did continue it long enough to conceive a love of books and a habit of reading which always remained with him.

The New York of Mr. Crerar's childhood was what would now be called a small city. When he was born, in the early part of 1827, its population was less than 175,000. While he was growing to manhood it increased to 300,000. When he left it to make his home in Chicago it had become a large city of 850,000 people.

Young Crerar continued in school till his eighteenth year and then entered the service of the house of which his stepfather was the New York manager. Here he remained for several years, advancing from one position to another, and about 1850 was sent to the branch house of the firm in Boston. He had become a bookkeeper, and was sent to Boston, perhaps, to organize, or reorganize, the bookkeeping. At all events he remained only a year or so and then returned to New York. It does not appear that he became again associated with his stepfather. He found a better position than that house had for him and became bookkeeper for another large iron firm. He continued this work, always on the look-out for something better, for perhaps three or four years, until he was twenty-nine years old. He must have been anxious to get into business himself. He could not but be conscious of the possession of business ability, but he was always a modest man, and being without capital his way into independent business activity seemed to be hedged up.

It was just at this time that a great piece of good fortune, the greatest of his business career, came to him. He made the acquaintance of Morris K. Jesup. Mr. Jesup was a little more than two years younger than Mr. Crerar, but he was already in business for himself. He had established himself in the business of dealing in railroad supplies in 1853, and during his commercial career became a man of very large wealth. He came to be one of the leading business men of the country. But it was his long life of philanthropy, a life devoted to the service of mankind in religion, in education, in charity, in encouraging exploration and scientific research, that made him one of the eminent men of our history. He lived till 1908, but retired from business in 1884 because,

as he said, "I found that both business and charitable work were becoming so absorbing that one or the other must suffer if I continued to do both. So, after careful consideration of the whole matter, I retired from business and have devoted my spare time to working for others and for the public interest." Mr. Jesup was then only fifty-four years old. He lived twenty-four years longer. He had lived during the thirty-one years of his business life for both his business and the public. It may be justly said that he devoted fifty-five of the seventy-eight years of his life to his fellow-men.

Commander Peary said in 1910: "To Morris K. Jesup, more than to any other one man, is due the fact that the North Pole is today a trophy of this country." His biographer, William Adams Brown, gives a summary of the official positions he held which indicates the wideness of his sympathies and the scope of his philanthropic activities:

> He was president of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York, a position to which he was elected in 1899 and which he held until a few months before his death. For more than a quarter of a century he was president of the American Museum of Natural History, of which he had been one of the founders. He was one of the founders of the Young Men's Christian Association, its president from 1872 to 1875, and at the time of his death, chairman of its Board of Trustees. For twenty-two years he was president of the New York City Mission and Tract Society. . . . . For more than thirty-five years he was president of the Five Points House of Industry. He was president of the American Sunday School Union, of the Peary Arctic Club, of the Sailors' Snug Harbor, of the Audubon Society of the State of New York, of the New England Society, and of the Syrian Protestant College at Beirut. He was first vice-president of the New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, and vice-president of the Union Theological Seminary, of the American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, and of the Pilgrims. He was one of the founders and for many years vice-president of the Society for the Suppression of Vice. He was treasurer of the John F. Slater Fund for the Education of Freedmen, and a member both of the Peabody and of the General Education Boards. He was a member of the Rapid Transit Commission, which built the first subway in the city of New York. He was one of the founders and for seven years a trustee of the Presbyterian Hospital. He was a trustee of the Hospital Saturday and Sunday Association, of the Society for the Relief of Half Orphan and Destitute Children, and of the Brick Presbyterian church, and a member of many other scientific, educational and philanthropic institutions, in which he held no official position, but in the work of which he was actively interested.

This was the man with whom John Crerar became acquainted about the beginning of 1856, with whom he became associated in business, and whose partner he remained to the end of his life. The influence of this association on Mr. Crerar's life was very great. The way in which

they came together was as follows. Mr. Jesup had started in business in 1853 with a Mr. Clark who had been a bookkeeper in a bank and had some capital. Mr. Jesup had no capital, but he knew the railway supplies business from the bottom up. The partnership continued three years, during which time Mr. Clark was bookkeeper and office man, while Mr. Jesup attended to all the outside business. The firm prospered, but for some reason a dissolution was resolved on in 1856. Mr. Jesup would need a competent bookkeeper and office man and turned to his new acquaintance and friend, John Crerar. But let him tell the story:

> I became acquainted with Mr. Crerar in 1856, then bookkeeper in the large iron house of Raymond and Fullerton in New York. I was then in business in New York under the firm name of M. K. Jesup and Co. One day, in the year 1856, seeing Mr. Crerar writing at his desk, I put this question to him, "John, would you like to better your position?" His instant reply was "Yes!" I said, "Come and see me at my office." All this resulted in my taking him into my employ as clerk, and within a very short time making him my partner in business. . . . . In the year 1859 I established a house in Chicago under the firm name of Jesup, Kennedy and Adams, J. McGregor Adams who was then a clerk for me in New York being sent to Chicago to take the management of this business. In the fall of 1862 Mr. Crerar was sent to Chicago and the firm was changed to Jesup, Kennedy & Co. Some time in the early part of 1863, Messrs. Crerar and Adams succeeded to the business and established the firm of Crerar, Adams & Co.
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> My long and intimate acquaintance with Mr. Crerar gave me the rare opportunity of knowing of what stuff he was made. He was a man of sterling integrity, of strong religious convictions, a kindly heart and a true friend. He loved all men and all loved him. I never knew a man who had so many real friends. He was social, though at the same time retiring, modest and humble, and in life counting his chief pleasure the being in the society of, and intimate relations with, his friends.
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> Mr. Crerar was a frugal man, lived without display or ostentation, and I often used to tell him that he was too much so, and that he ought to be more among men, giving his money while he lived and having the enjoyment of seeing it well administered. His uniform reply was, "I am satisfied and content." . . . . I could say much more about this good man; there lived none better.

It is evident that young Crerar possessed such an unusual combination of qualities for success in a business which he had been studying for eleven years that his early entrance into the new firm of M. K. Jesup & Company was inevitable. The other member of the new house was John S. Kennedy. It must be remembered that the railroad-supplies business was then in its infancy in this country. The iron age and the railroad age had just begun. The firm of M. K. Jesup & Company was just beginning to get on its feet and its members were poor men. It had the advantage of starting at the outset of that period of un-

precedented development which has covered the continent with railroads and made the last seventy years the Railway Age. Being men of great business ability they availed themselves to the utmost of the extraordinary opportunities of the new era, and the firm entered on a career of great and increasing prosperity.

Mr. Crerar did not long remain in New York after becoming a partner in the company. While he did remain, however, he manifested that enlightened interest in organized efforts for the good of the community which characterized his later life. He was a deeply religious man and constantly engaged in the activities of the Scotch Presbyterian church in which he had been brought up by his devout mother. He was much interested in the Mercantile Library Association and became president of that body. He was a member of the Union Club, the Union League, and the Century Club, and continued his membership in these organizations after leaving New York.

The first railroads from the East, the Michigan Southern and the Michigan Central, entered Chicago in 1852. Immediately that period of railway development began which within a little more than fifteen years gave Illinois a greater railroad mileage than any other state in the Union and made Chicago the great railway center of the country. It was inevitable that the city should become the chief distributing point of railroad supplies. Mr. Crerar and his partners were not slow in recognizing what this meant for a business like theirs. It meant, not merely that such a business was likely to be successful in Chicago, but that it was imperatively demanded there. Chicago became the one location on the continent for a business in railroad supplies. In 1859, therefore, as quoted above from Mr. Jesup, J. McGregor Adams was sent to Chicago to inaugurate the business, and became a partner in the Chicago branch, which was known as Jesup, Kennedy & Adams. It was so successful from the start that two and a half or three years later Mr. Crerar, then a member of the parent house, found it necessary to go to Chicago to care for the expanding business and the firm name became Jesup, Kennedy & Co. Messrs. Crerar and Adams were the junior partners. It will be recalled that Mr. Jesup says that "sometime in the early part of 1863 Messrs. Crerar and Adams succeeded to the business and established the firm of Crerar, Adams and Co." Mr. Jesup is undoubtedly correct in this statement, but, on account of the business value of the old title, the new firm continued to do business under the name Jesup, Kennedy & Company for five years. The city directory of 1868 was the first to contain the name of "Crerar,

Adams & Co., manufacturers and dealers in railroad supplies and contractors' materials, 11 and 13 Wells St."

Twenty-one years later, in 1889, the Commercial Club, an organization of the leading business men of Chicago, paid the following tribute to Mr. Crerar, who had just died:

The Commercial Club has met a peculiar and irreparable loss in the death of John Crerar. The death of a man who is both strong and good must always seem irreparable and probably always is irreparable. But Mr. Crerar was, besides, the most devoted and faithful member of the organization . . . . and we who are his fellow-members have experienced a personal affliction such as can rarely come out of the intercourse and friendships of social life. He was not a recent friend nor one who could make a light impression upon his neighbors. We knew him intimately for many years; he was a part of ourselves, and he was such a man as must fill, by the importance of his qualities, a large place in the lives of his friends. He was remarkable for the way in which his character combined force with geniality. His strength and incisiveness seemed to find no contrast or opposition in his exceeding geniality, but these several qualities combined and mingled in him to the producing of a most delightful and unique man. . . . . His conspicuous personal attractiveness, his fine and wholesome example as a gentleman, his constant, varied, most generous and yet most discriminated charities, his conspicuous business conservatism and judgment, so justified by success, and his steadfastness in his religious life, made him a man of rare value and usefulness to all circles with whom he closely associated, and to the large circle of the great city.

Because we knew him so well and valued him so highly, and because we bore him so warm an affection we wish to make some expression like this which may be at least a slight evidence of the impression his life made upon us and the sorrow we feel at his death. And to make this expression as permanent as we can, we, the members of the Commercial Club, now resolve that, although any words we can use must seem inadequate and inexpressive, these be made a part of the permanent records of our Club.

What then was the life that John Crerar lived in Chicago for twenty-seven years that won for him such a tribute of admiration and affection from these hard-headed men of business who knew him so intimately?

From the first he had thrown himself into his business with great energy. He had partners, but none of them ever questioned his dominance. They were able men but they recognized his leadership. The terms of partnership were determined by him and accepted by them without any written contract, as just and even liberal to the other members of the firm. In his last partnership, to which the other parties were Mr. Adams and Mr. Shepherd, he wrote out a partnership agreement, though the other partners never examined it till after his death. They were then surprised to find that no figures indicated the extent of their interest in the business. No difficulty, however, arose on this account. The matter had been understood between them and

the estate was settled without trouble. Moreover he had left $50,000 to each of them as a token of friendship and confidence.

The business grew with the amazing growth of the western railroads. It soon became known as one of the most important business concerns in Chicago. The business had been originally started by Mr. Adams in a small place on Dearborn Street. In 1865 it was moved to much larger quarters at 11 and 13 Wells Street at the corner of South Water Street. The building was noted as being one of the only two iron-front structures in Chicago, but it was entirely destroyed in the fire of 1871. Immediately after the fire business was resumed in a "mere shanty" that had been put up for temporary use at the corner of Adams Street and Michigan Avenue, and in these makeshift quarters it remained for a year. At the end of that time the Robbins Building had been completed on the old site and the business was transferred to it and in it continued to be conducted during Mr. Crerar's life. The house soon came to be the largest concern of its kind in the Middle West. Edward S. Shepherd became a partner, and after the death of Mr. Crerar he became the sole owner of the business. In a great building at 239 E. Erie Street, on the north side of Chicago, overlooking Lake Michigan, Mr. Shepherd still carries on the business under the old name, Crerar, Adams & Company.

The business expanded so rapidly that a manufacturing department was soon found to be necessary. Such a department was therefore secured by the purchase of a business already existing, which was reorganized as the Adams & Westlake Company, manufacturers of railroad-car trimmings, lamps, lanterns, and sheet-metal specialties. It came to include brass and bronze foundries of the most modern type. Though founded earlier the company was incorporated under the laws of Illinois in 1869. Since 1872 the main factory and offices of the company have been on the north side and now cover the entire block bounded by Orleans, Ontario, Franklin, and Ohio streets. Before the death of Mr. Crerar, he and Mr. Adams had, to a considerable extent, divided their interests, Mr. Crerar and Mr. Shepherd retaining Crerar, Adams & Company, and Mr. Adams taking over the Adams & Westlake Company.

Cook's *By-gone Days in Chicago*, referring to the year 1862, the year of Mr. Crerar's coming to the city, makes the following interesting statement:

> Reference should be made to a group whose names are familiar to nearly every Chicagoan today, but who, for the most part, were wholly unknown in 1862; or just rising into recognition within the lines of their specialties, yet in a few years were to

dominate almost every branch of commercial activity. . . . . Marshall Field and L. Z. Leiter were merely rising junior partners. Wm. F. Coolbaugh and John Crerar were new arrivals. Lyman J. Gage had just been promoted to the cashiership of the Merchant's Savings Loan and Trust Company, and beginners with them were George M. Pullman, S. W. Allerton, A. M. Billings, John W. Doane, N. K. Fairbank, John C. Gault, H. N. Higginbotham, Marvin Hughitt, B. P. Hutchinson, General A. C. McClurg, Franklin MacVeagh . . . . while Chief Justice M. W. Fuller was a rising young lawyer.

Mr. Crerar, modest and retiring as he always was, soon came to be recognized as one of the leading business men of the city. When the Commercial Club of Chicago was in contemplation he was invited to become one of the thirty-nine constituent members. Though not particularly addicted to clubs he was a devoted member of this one which was made up of the leaders of Chicago business. I have already indicated the admiration and affection in which he was held by his fellow-members. In John J. Glessner's history of the Commercial Club he says:

The Club was especially fortunate in the rare quality of its original membership, composed of men who easily stood out above their fellows in the community; men who not only made themselves and their own businesses, but made the town they lived in, and loved it. Pullman and Fairbank and Field and Doane and Stager and Crerar and Leiter and Farwell and the two Keiths and Armour, and men like these, would have made their mark anywhere and in any time.

And again he says:

Several of the most prominent of the early members never held office, though the chief executive position was at different times urged upon them—Field and Pullman and Crerar, among those who have gone, and others who still are here. They felt honored in the choice, but distrustful of ability to give time and attention to the work.

It was inevitable that, with Mr. Crerar's business ability and increasing prosperity, he should extend his interests beyond his immediate business. He did not make any considerable dealings in real estate. Other forms of investment made a stronger appeal to him. He was no speculator, but very conservative in his views and methods. Yet he had a business instinct and an open and farseeing mind that led him to consider and enter into new and large projects, that, in his judgment, promised great development. When, therefore, Mr. Pullman laid before him his revolutionary palace-car plans, he listened, weighed, and, finally approving, engaged in the organization and financing of the Pullman Palace Car Company. It seems incredible now, but fifty-five years ago Mr. Pullman's projects were so new and strange and revolutionary that few believed them practicable, least of

all perhaps railroad men. He had little capital himself and he found it very difficult to enlist capitalists in his scheme. He was a young man, only thirty-four years old in 1865. Mr. Crerar was also a young man of thirty-eight, just beginning to be a man of substance. Perhaps the nature of his business—railway supplies—enabled him to grasp the possibilities of the new sleeping-car and he entered so fully into Mr. Pullman's plans that when the Pullman Palace Car Company was finally organized in 1867 he became one of the incorporators and a member of the board of directors. He was one of the men who laid the foundations of that great industry which has had such an extraordinary development. He continued on the board of directors from the formation of the company to the end of his life, a period of twenty-two years and did his full share in promoting the success of the company.

Soon after beginning business in Chicago, Mr. Crerar became a director of the Chicago & Alton Railroad. His connection with this company had one very interesting result quite unrelated to business. It brought him, of course, into close business relations with the able president of the road, T. B. Blackstone, and their relations resulted in an intimate and delightful friendship, which was characterized by a warm affection. So strong was his attachment to Mr. Blackstone that, when he made his will in 1887, though his friend was a man of large wealth he left to him a bequest of $5,000 "to purchase some memento which will remind him of my appreciation of his uniform and life-long kindness to me."

Mr. Crerar was long the Chicago director in the Liverpool, London and Globe Insurance Company. He was one of the original stockholders and a director of the Illinois Trust and Savings Bank. He was a director in the Chicago & Joliet Railroad and for a time president of the road. He had large interests in the Joliet Steel Company. These are only indications of the wideness of his business interests which continually reached out in new directions as his prosperity increased.

Mr. Crerar's independent business career was not a long one. It was restricted to less than thirty years. After becoming the head of the house of Crerar, Adams & Company it continued only twenty-six years, when death brought it to an end. He lived to be only sixty-two years old. He had been very successful. He was a conservative but astute business man, and, had his life been prolonged, his successes would have kept pace, doubtless, with those of his most successful associates who carried their large activities on into the new century.

In closing the introductory paragraphs of his will Mr. Crerar said, "I am a bachelor and was born in New York City, but have been a citizen of Chicago since 1862." Why he never married does not appear. He would seem to have been eminently fitted to give and receive happiness as the head of a family. He did not escape the raillery to which all bachelors are subject. He received it good naturedly, insisting that he was not insensible to feminine charms. When rallied on the subject his usual answer was: "I am in love with all." Being a bachelor he lived in hotels, the last ten years of his life at the Grand Pacific.

We may be certain that one of the first things he did after reaching Chicago was to identify himself actively with the church. He was deeply religious. He had been so from his youth, and in Chicago entered the Second Presbyterian Church. He was soon made an elder and a trustee, and for more than twenty years was one of the pillars of that church. His religious interest did not diminish as his wealth increased. He regularly attended the church prayer meeting. He was a constant reader of the Bible. His favorite chapter was the eighth chapter of Romans, which he knew by heart. When the new building of the church was erected at Michigan Avenue and Twentieth Street, he contributed $10,000 toward the extinguishment of the debt. All his friends knew him as a Christian man. He was outspoken in his faith and never hesitated to defend Christianity when it was attacked in his presence. "He has been known to exclaim in a tone of impatient disgust, at hearing some one ask if he really believed that Jonah was swallowed by a whale, 'Oh! bosh! What has that to do with religion?' " This is an illustration of what was said of him that though he was very much of a gentleman "he was a singularly candid man and when occasion demanded could be abrupt." During the later years of his life the pastor of the Second Presbyterian Church was Dr. S. J. McPherson, between whom and Mr. Crerar a most affectionate friendship developed. Dr. McPherson was a lovable man, and Mr. Crerar indicated his strong attachment to him by leaving him a bequest of $20,000. His will also revealed his love for the church and the depth of his doctrinal convictions. He left to the Second Presbyterian Church $100,000 "so long as said church preserves and maintains the principles of the Presbyterian faith." But he also left the church without reservation $100,000 for its mission schools. He did not forget the church in which he had been brought up and to which all his family had belonged, the Scotch Presbyterian Church of New York City, to which he left $25,000. He also left the Presbyterian League of Chicago $50,000. He was a loyal Presbyterian.

But his religious interest was not confined within denominational lines. He was greatly interested in the Chicago Young Men's Christian Association and was one of its devoted adherents throughout his life in Chicago. He was vice-president of the Association and left it $50,000 in his will.

He was for many years actively interested in the work of the American Sunday School Union.

Each year he gave cheerfully and liberally to the support of the work throughout his long and successful career. When he was disposing of his property by bequest he put these words in his will: "I give and bequeath to the American Sunday School Union, established in the City of Philadelphia, hereby requesting that said sum be employed in promoting the cause of said Sunday School Union in the Western States and Territories, the sum of $50,000. . . . . I should prefer that the legacies or bequests be used so that the interest would keep missionaries in the field, or would enable good to be done as opportunities present themselves."

This suggestion as to the general policy of the Sunday School Union of the use to be made of legacies has been followed in the use made of Mr. Crerar's bequest with remarkable results. Every year since 1893 a report has been published showing the work done by the missionaries supported by the income of the fund. At the end of twenty-five years it appeared that three missionaries had been employed each year. About 1,600 Sunday schools had been organized in remote districts of the North and West, with nearly 60,000 scholars. These missionaries had aided in various ways 10,000 Sunday schools in which there were 160,000 pupils. They had distributed 12,000 Bibles or portions of Scripture. Nearly 90 churches had been organized and about 7,000 converts had been led into a new life. These reports are documents of real human interest. They may truthfully be termed live stuff. They make these dry figures live and throb with tragic interest in the incidents they detail of the new hope and joy and life carried into many remote wilderness places. John Crerar still lives and goes about our world in the guise of these earnest missionaries doing good.

And this reminds me of what one of his partners has told me. As he sat at his desk in his office he kept in the upper right-hand drawer, where it was nearest his hand, a check book. When people came in asking his help for any cause he would hear them considerately and if they made a case that appealed to him he would reach for the book and write them a check, entering on the stub what it was for. When his effects were examined after his death these check books were found and proved to be interesting reading. For example on the stub of one check was found the following: "A woman going about doing good." It was

said of him: "His philanthropy knew no bounds or limits, but was constantly active and progressive, without ostentation."

Religion and religious causes did not exhaust his sympathies. He was a director of the Presbyterian Hospital and bequeathed to it $25,000. All the philanthropies that interested him in life he remembered with great munificence when he came to make his will.

The great relief organization for ministering to the destitute in his day was the Chicago Relief and Aid Society. He was one of its officers and took an active interest in its work, leaving it $50,000.

He was particularly interested in the Chicago Orphan Asylum. When writing his will and leaving the asylum $50,000, he added, "Of which I am now vice-president," as though that personal relation gave him satisfaction. In his early days in Chicago he was secretary of the board of the Hospital for Women and Children which then existed. It was only Mr. Crerar's modesty and distaste for public position that kept him from official connection with a score or more of the charitable and other institutions of the city. He was a liberal contributor to their treasuries. To some of them he belonged, as the Chicago Literary Club and the Chicago Historical Society. He aided the latter in securing its first building after the great fire and left it $25,000 in his will, and to the Literary Club he left $10,000.

To organizations with which he had no official connection the munificence shown in his will was only the carrying on of the interest he had manifested in repeated benefactions during his life. Here is the list, excluding those already mentioned and others to be mentioned later: the Nursery and Half Orphan Asylum, $50,000; St. Luke's Free Hospital, $25,000; Chicago Bible Society, $25,000; St. Andrew's Society of New York, $10,000; St. Andrew's Society of Chicago, $10,000; Illinois Training School for Nurses, $50,000; Old Peoples' Home of Chicago, $50,000; Chicago Home of the Friendless, $50,000.

Among the many services the Commercial Club has rendered to the community not the least was the founding in 1882 of the Chicago Manual Training School, now a part of the high school of the University of Chicago. Mr. Crerar was much interested in the project. He was one of the subscribers to the fund of $100,000, raised by the Club to inaugurate the work of the school. He was made a member of the committee to determine the plan of organization and was one of its board of directors to the end of his life. His belief in the work of the school was so great that in making his will he provided a bequest to it of $50,000. He did not indicate in the will how this sum was to be

used. His fellow-trustees, however, doubtless followed what they knew to be his preference when they established a John Crerar Prize to be given to the best student of each graduating class, and distributed the larger part of the income in free scholarships for poor boys needing such assistance.

Soon after the University of Chicago began its work the trustees of the Manual Training School opened negotiations with its representatives looking to the incorporation of the school into the University system. This was finally consummated in 1902 when the Manual Training School became a part of the University High School, bringing to the University funds and equipment amounting to about a quarter of a million dollars. A part of this was the Crerar Fund of $50,000. In the Articles of Agreement it was provided that an annual prize of $20 should be given to one member of each class in the Manual Training Department to be known as the John Crerar Prize; that a scholarship should be given to one member of the graduating class in the Department which should entitle the holder to free tuition through a complete course in any department of the University, to be known as the John Crerar Scholarship, and that the remainder of the income should be used in paying, either in whole, or, in part, the tuition in the Manual Training Department of poor and deserving boys who would otherwise be unable to avail themselves of its privileges, to be known as the Crerar Aid. It was also provided that the principal of the John Crerar Fund should never be impaired or diminished, or the income in any way diverted from the foregoing objects or purposes.

Thus for nearly thirty years in the School and the University between twenty and twenty-five boys have been helped every year to an education in which the hand and the mind have both been trained. Already, six hundred boys have been helped by Mr. Crerar to enter into life with the advantages of this sort of training. And he will, through this endowment, continue to do this as long as the University endures. A little while ago we saw him as a missionary carrying light and life to those dwelling in wilderness places. We here see him as an educator training every year classes of boys for useful and successful lives.

Mr. Crerar was at one time a trustee of the first University of Chicago, but distrustful of its prospects withdrew from the board. Three years later the institution closed its doors. He did not live to see the present University established. The public movement for its founding was inaugurated in Chicago only four months before his death. He was one of the men before whom the plans for the new institution

would have been laid, and who would have given them sympathetic consideration. The University may well feel honored in having the name of such a man as John Crerar enrolled among those who have established special funds for the benefit of those it is preparing for the business of life. For his life and character place him in the front rank among the foremost men of Chicago.

Mr. Crerar's life was not an eventful one, except in the rapid accumulation of wealth. He became Mr. Jesup's partner when about thirty-three years old and continued in the same line of business to the end of his life. He was in business for himself only about twenty-nine years. He was just beginning to make himself known in New York when he made the new departure in his business which took him to Chicago. His life in that city was restricted to twenty-seven years. Beginning at the bottom of the business ladder he climbed steadily and rapidly, but it necessarily took half these twenty-seven years to gain a position of any considerable prominence. He was therefore a well-known and leading man of business for only a few years. He had no liking for prominence or desire for position; he would not accept the presidency of the Commercial Club. He was a strenuous Republican in politics, but once only took any public place. In 1888 he accepted a nomination and was elected a presidential elector in the Harrison campaign. A bachelor with no family life he might have been expected to seek society in the many clubs that were open to such men. But among social clubs he joined but one—the Calumet. He was enamored of a quiet life. He was not a great traveler, going abroad but once. He preferred the city to the country, almost never accepting invitations to visit his friends in their country homes. He was very regular in his habits. Summer and winter he retired and rose at the same hour. He was fond of reading, and read both books and newspapers. In his newspaper reading he was always on the lookout for good stories and jokes. These he cut out and preserved. He had a keen sense of humor and would often inclose a humorous clipping in an envelope and send it anonymously to some friend who would enjoy it. He enjoyed this all the more if it had some personal application his friend would appreciate. After his death a box of these newspaper clippings was found among his effects. He always had scholarly tastes, which he did not permit the exacting demands of a constantly expanding business to suppress. In his young manhood his interest in the Mercantile Library Association of New York made him its president. It was this Association that brought Thackeray to this country on his lecturing visits and it is said

that Mr. Crerar was largely instrumental in these invitations being sent to the great novelist. It was this interest in books and literature that made this iron merchant a member of the Chicago Literary Club, who so appreciated its work that he made it a bequest of $10,000, as already told.

To one who knew him we are indebted for the following personal glimpse of Mr. Crerar:

> His demeanor to his fellowmen was the very type and example of equable, dignified gaiety, good humor, kindliness and charity toward all the world. . . . . His favorite attitude was standing firm and erect, the lapel of his coat thrown back and his thumb caught in his vest [pocket]. To see him in this position was a signal for gay welcoming and recognition for friends.

And another says of him: "His dignified yet gentle bearing attracted the eye no less than his kindliness and sympathy warmed the heart." I am told there was an air of distinction in his appearance that attracted attention in any company.

Mr. Crerar's mother did not live to see her son's larger successes. She died in 1873, nine years after he established himself in Chicago. He was always very tenderly attached to her. As he never married he continued to regard New York, where she remained, as home, as long as she lived. But after her death Chicago became home to him, and his attachment to the church, his interest in the things that made for a better city, and his friendships among the best and biggest Chicagoans of his day were such that he became devotedly attached to the city and often declared that he could not be happy permanently in any other place.

Few men have had a higher compliment paid them than came to Mr. Crerar after the great Chicago fire of 1871. He immediately entered with his characteristic energy into the relief work of the Relief and Aid Society, and the New York Chamber of Commerce and other large donors sent their great contributions for the stricken city to him for distribution. He made on men the impression of unimpeachable integrity, of executive ability, and of sincere and wise philanthropy.

He had a peculiar genius for friendship. He formed intimate friendships with some of the foremost men in Chicago. His partners were his friends. Throughout his business career in Chicago he continued in the partnership which was formed at the outset. J. McGregor Adams said of him:

> He was a high-souled generous man, liberal in all things, and one whose friendship was a thing to be prized and to be proud of. He was a philanthropist of the noblest type and did a wonderful amount of good in a quiet way. For twenty-five years he

and I have been business partners and during that long period we never had a quarrel or dispute in any way. To his employés he was always the same, pleasant, genial, approachable. Frank and outspoken and decided in his views he never hesitated to express them, though it was always done in an affable manner. He had a vein of quiet humor that made him a very companionable man. Full of fun and anecdotes, he dearly loved a good story.

Mr. Crerar retained his health till he had passed his sixty-second year. It began to fail in the spring of 1889. In August of that year Dr. Frank Billings went with him to Atlantic City, it being hoped that the sea air would do him good. But on September 9 he suffered a partial stroke of paralysis in his right side. As soon as it seemed safe he returned to Chicago and to the home of perhaps his dearest friend, Norman Williams, and there died on October 19, 1889, in the sixty-third year of his age.

He had said in his will: "I ask that I may be buried by the side of my honored mother in Greenwood Cemetery, Brooklyn, N.Y., in the family lot. . . . . I desire a plain headstone, similar to that which marks my mother's grave to be raised over my head." These requests were faithfully carried out by his friends. The "plain headstone . . . . raised over his head" bears the following inscription: "A just man and one that feared God."

On December 22, 1889, a great memorial meeting was held in Central Music Hall, which was then the great auditorium of the city. Rarely has such a tribute been paid to the memory of a private citizen. The great hall did not begin to accommodate the multitude who sought admission. It was found necessary to close the doors before the hour set for opening the exercises.

In one of the addresses it was said of Mr. Crerar that the use he made of his wealth caused him to rise from "a private citizen to the ranks of creative men." And this brings us again to that remarkable document with which this sketch began, his last will and testament. Two introductory words should be said of it.

In the first place, it was not made in any immediate expectation of death. It was not the hurried work of the sick bed, but the well-considered, fully matured work of a man little past middle age, in the full vigor of health, with the possibility of many years of active life still before him. It was made in 1887, two years before Mr. Crerar's death, and was evidently the result of long reflection and final, deliberate purpose.

In the second place, it was not devised for the purpose of making amends, in the final disposition of his wealth when he could no longer

hold on to it for the shortcomings of his life. It was the final and natural expression of his character and the life he had always lived. His father, who died when he was an infant, he had never known and apparently knew nothing of any relatives on his father's side. He had been devoted to his mother, and anyone related to her, or who had been kind to her, was not without claims on him. The giving of money to religious and charitable causes had been the habit of his life. He had been a reader of books. He loved good literature. The Literary Club where books were the themes of discussion, he had particularly delighted in. Having no family his evenings had been devoted to books. They had formed a large element in his life. One can imagine him in these long evenings of reading and reflection, thinking of the many thousands in the great city who would enjoy books as much as he did if they had access to them, and of the unspeakable benefit great collections of books would be to them. And one can easily conceive the glow of satisfaction that filled his whole being when the purpose to establish a great free library was formed in his heart.

But, however just these remarks are, it remains true that the greatest and most significant act of Mr. Crerar's life was the making of his will. He himself must have felt this to be true. He approached the task very seriously. After the prefatory remarks quoted at the beginning of this sketch he continues. "It remains with me to make a disposition of my estate."

He bequeathed, to begin with, something over $500,000 to cousins on his mother's side, to friends who had been kind to his mother, to his partners, and to other personal friends.

Then followed bequests of nearly $900,000 to religious, educational, and charitable causes as has been related in preceding pages.

He left "$100,000 for a colossal statue of Abraham Lincoln." Of this bequest, Judge B. D. Magruder, speaking before the Chicago Literary Club, said:

> With a modesty that bespeaks the greatness of his soul, he orders a simple headstone to be placed at his own grave, but that a colossal statue be raised to the man who abolished slavery in the United States. The millionaire is content to lie low, but he insists that the great emancipator shall rise high. . . . . This contrast between the headstone and the statue indicates, as plainly as though it had been expressed in words, Mr. Crerar's estimate of true heroism. Doing good to others was his conception of greatness.

The heroic statue of Lincoln was practically the final creative work of the genius of Augustus Saint Gaudens. It was placed in the hands of the South Park Commission of Chicago, which proposes to place it

in Grant Park. It was loaned by the Commissioners to the Panama Exposition and was seen and admired by the millions of visitors to San Francisco in 1915.

Grant Park is being constructed on the downtown lake front of Chicago which will extend from Randolph Street to Twelfth Street, or the new Roosevelt Road. It is being built up out of the waters of Lake Michigan. It is a part of the Chicago Plan which will transform the entire lake front from the river to Jackson Park into a dream of beauty, giving Chicago the most wonderful water front of any city in the world. The great statue of Lincoln is to be located a little north of the center of the Park, southeast of the Art Institute. In the center of the Park there will be a garden, and the statue will be placed just north of the garden. The funds have finally been provided, by the voters' approval of a bond issue, for the completion of Grant Park, and there can be no long delay in the placing of the statue of the great American in its permanent resting-place.

The final provision of Mr. Crerar's will reads as follows:

> Recognizing the fact that I have been a resident of Chicago since 1862, and that the greater part of my fortune has been accumulatd here . . . . I give, devise, and bequeath all the rest, remainder and residue of my estate both real and personal for the erection, creation, maintenance and endowment of a Free Public Library to be called The John Crerar Library and to be located in the city of Chicago, Illinois, a preference being given to the South Division of the city inasmuch as the Newberry Library will be located in the North Division. . . . . I desire the building to be tasteful, substantial and fire-proof and that sufficient be reserved over and above the cost of its construction to provide, maintain and support a library for all time. I desire that the books and periodicals be selected with a view to create and sustain a healthy moral and Christian sentiment in the community and that all nastiness and immorality be excluded. I do not mean by this that there shall be nothing but hymn books and sermons, but I mean that dirty French novels and all sceptical trash and works of questionable moral tone shall never be found in this library. I want its atmosphere that of Christian refinement, and its aim and object the building up of character, and I rest content that the friends I have named will carry out my wishes in those particulars.

The friends referred to were Norman Williams, Huntington W. Jackson, who were the executors of the will and trustees of the estate, and Marshall Field, E. W. Blatchford, T. B. Blackstone, Robert T. Lincoln, Henry W. Bishop, Albert Keep, Edson Keith, S. J. McPherson (then his pastor), John M. Clark, and George A. Armour. These twelve men he requested to act as the first board of directors of the library. They formed a distinguished body of men. They were all personal friends of Mr. Crerar and assumed the responsibilities laid upon them as a labor of love.

It will be noted that the will makes no mention of relatives on his father's side and bearing the Crerar name. His father had died when he was a few months old. His mother does not appear to have had any acquaintance with his father's family and the boy grew to manhood without any knowledge of Crerars related to him. There were such Crerars, however, though they remained apparently ignorant of his existence until the press carried the news of his large bequests throughout the world. They were then heard from and in contesting the validity of the will their contentions confirm the view here advanced. The attack on the will was made by Donald Crerar and others who said

that in his will, Mr. Crerer made no mention of his next of kin on his father's side and seemed to be ignorant of the fact that there were such next of kin; that he gave divers large bequests and legacies to his cousins on his mother's side; that he left no kin of nearer degree than first cousins and that complainants are his first cousins on his father's side and constitute all of his first cousins and next of kin, except the first cousins on his mother's side, who were named in and given certain legacies by the will; that all of the cousins to whom such legacies were given have accepted the same and have released all claims against the estate, and that complainants are entitled, as next of kin and heirs at law, to share in all property owned by Mr. Crerar at the time of his death and not legally devised by him.

The paragraphs of the will particularly attacked were the bequests to the Second Presbyterian Church, the Chicago Bible Society, the Literary Club, the Lincoln statue, and the John Crerar Library. A great legal battled ensued. A considerable array of able lawyers was employed on both sides, the will being defended by Williams, Holt and Wheeler, and Lyman and Jackson, the law firms of the two executors, assisted by James L. High and John H. Mulkey. After failing in the lower courts the contestants carried the case to the Supreme Court of the state. It was not till 1893 that the contest came to an end and then the will was sustained in every particular.

It was characteristic of the careful business man that Mr. Crerar embodied in that part of the will leaving bequests to his cousins the following wise directions to his executors:

I fancy that my cousins have but little acquaintance with business matters, and I wish my executors and trustees to give them advice in regard to the legacies and bequests. For example, if a farm is mortgaged, suggest that the mortgage be paid off. If their farm is not mortgaged suggest that their respective legacies should be well invested.

It was supposed that the bequest for the free public library would amount to about two and a half million dollars. But the board of directors was a body of business experts, with the highest skill in the

care of funds. They applied their financial genius to the care of the public trust committed to them. They started the library without undue haste and instead of expending a large part of the capital fund in a costly building, they rented commodious quarters and when they opened the library to readers April 1, 1897, began to create a building fund from the annual income, and in 1918, at the end of twenty-four years, had secured a valuable site and paid for it and had accumulated a building fund of $1,300,943.39. Meantime the endowment fund had increased under the management of these financial experts and faithful stewards to $3,500,000. The total assets, instead of being $2,500,000 as first estimated, amounted at the end of twenty-four years, in 1918, to $5,557,544. The books in the library now number about 430,000 and there are nearly or quite 175,000 pamphlets. In 1918 more than 14,000 volumes were added to the collection, which thus increases every year.

Before the opening of the library in 1897 the directors decided to make it "a free public reference library of scientific and technical literature." The librarian, Clement W. Andrews, says:

> The special field of the John Crerar Library may be defined as that of the natural, physical, and social sciences and their applications. It is the purpose of the directors to develop the library as symmetrically as possible within these limits, and to make it exceptionally rich in files of scientific and technical periodicals, both American and foreign.

The reading-rooms are daily filled with readers, the numbers increasing every year, already aggregating much more than 100,000 annually.

In 1912 the directors purchased a site for the library building on the northwest corner of Michigan Avenue and Randolph Street, 128 by 135 feet, the longer front being on Michigan Avenue. That part of the building now being erected will cover something more than one-third, possibly about one-half the entire site. This part is now going up and will be completed and occupied by the library within the coming year. The other sections will be added as the growing demands of the library require.

The funds managed thus far with consummate wisdom are sufficient to develop and sustain one of the great libraries of the world. As Mr. Andrews says, the decision of the directors

> to establish a free public reference library of scientific and technical literature, seemed to them to accord with the particular business activities by which the greater part of Mr. Crerar's fortune had been accumulated, to exclude naturally certain questionable classes of books which his will distinctly prohibits and to favor the aim and object

which it expressly points out. As personal friends who had been acquainted with his wise and generous purposes, and with his civic patriotism and gratitude, they believed that he would surely have wished his gift to supplement, in the most effective way, the existing and prospective library collections of Chicago, and to be of the greatest possible value to the whole city.

That wish has been gratified, and he has established in the heart of the city a great institution of education and enlightenment that will radiate ever-increasing light down through the ages.

It was Franklin MacVeagh who said of Mr. Crerar at the great memorial meeting in the Central Music Hall: "He has set us an example of the right use of wealth, the great uses of wealth, the permanent uses of wealth, and the final uses of wealth."

His will was the natural outcome and expression of his entire life. He was one of those men whose life and death glorify humanity and help us to understand something of the meaning of that word: "God created man in his own image."

MRS. MARY H. WILMARTH[1]

By MARION TALBOT

Soon after the University of Chicago was opened in October, 1892, Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, with that breadth of sympathy and keenness of vision which many remember with admiration, recognized the need of an agency for giving financial aid to capable and promising students. In organizing the Students' Fund Society she found ready and generous support from citizens of Chicago who were interested in the new University. First and foremost was Mrs. Wilmarth who was the moving spirit from the beginning. I cannot tell the whole story. Under her direction sums varying from twenty-five dollars to several hundred dollars were loaned without interest. In every case recommended by the Faculty committee she had a personal interview with the candidate, and you can readily believe that the experience for the student was one of intellectual and spiritual enrichment even more than of material help. Her sagacity and penetration were marvelous. The records of the Society show how seldom her judgment was at fault. The funds loaned came back in a steady stream as life brought its successes to these young people.

Professor J. Laurence Laughlin, who, as the representative of the Faculty, gave generous and devoted service for a long term of years, writes as follows:

> She was the mainstay of the Student Loan Fund, always generous, sympathetic, but in all her giving never unwise or undiscriminating. How many times I have gone down to the meetings at the end of a quarter with demands of five hundred to one thousand dollars beyond our cash on hand; and silently, unknown to others, she took care of every appealing case. She and Mrs. Judah were tireless in those early days, but she longest of all. In all emergencies she had a fine poise and business sense. Nothing was done without care and deliberation. Yet her tact and graciousness were pre-eminent.
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> In my *Latter-Day Problems* at the end of the chapter on "Women and Wealth" I had her in my mind when I said: "On the other hand, we also know the type—a rarer one—of the woman to whom a husband had left large wealth, whose pleasure is not in self-indulgence, but whose wisdom and sympathy in giving is such that the power of her riches is multiplied an hundredfold and whose unselfish life is a benediction to every one who is privileged to know her."

[1] Remarks by Dean Talbot at the memorial meeting held under the auspices of the philosophy and science department of the Chicago Woman's Club, November 21, 1919.

The greatness of a university cannot be measured by the number of its students or its faculty, its endowments, or its material resources. Its friends are its greatest possessions, and the University of Chicago has been fortunate indeed in counting Mrs. Wilmarth among these. Her service to the Students' Fund Society was one of her many rich gifts. Words fail wholly to describe what she gave constantly, generously, sympathetically. Her presence, a written word of cheer or counsel, intelligent understanding of the University's problems, made an atmosphere of intellectual and spiritual values which was priceless. We miss it daily, but the effect of her influence in those early and formative years will last as long and as far as the University—I think even longer and farther.

THE JOHN BILLINGS FISKE PRIZE IN POETRY

The wide and growing interest now being taken in poetry in this country has suggested that universities might be a great influence in the production of that form of literature and so contribute something of pleasure and stimulus and beauty to our national life. With that thought in mind Mr. Horace Spencer Fiske, of the University of Chicago Press, has established at the University, in memory of his father, John Billings Fiske, an annual poetry prize of approximately fifty dollars, which shall be given in a competition open to all graduate and undergraduate students alike, the judges to be the Head of the Department of English, a leading American poet, and a leading American critic.

JOHN BILLINGS FISKE

John Billings Fiske, in whose memory this poetry prize has been given, was born at Waterford on the Hudson, the son of Horace and Mary Adams Fiske. The beauty of this region, at the junction of the Hudson and the Mohawk, seems to have had a deep influence on the heart and imagination of the boy and he remained through life an intense and unaffected lover of nature in all her moods and changes. At twenty years of age he was graduated with the degree of Bachelor of Arts from Union College, Schenectady, New York, under the presidency of the famous Dr. Eliphalet Nott. He was among the first seven in his class in scholarship, receiving the Phi Beta Kappa key, and among his classmates was President Chester A. Arthur.

Soon after graduation Mr. Fiske came under such religious influences that he determined to make the ministry his life-work. As his father had been a Presbyterian elder for thirty years, the son naturally took some of his theological training at Princeton, and his first pastorate was at Amherst, Massachusetts. But the West called with a voice not to be denied, and he later took up long pastorates in Michigan, Iowa, and Missouri. His sermons, carefully thought out, written down, and revised, contained frequent poetic allusions and illustrations, and not uncommonly a humorous phrase or incident that started a smile. In fact, his great liberality of view in the treatment of religious themes proved to some of his more orthodox listeners a stumbling-block and a rock of offense, and he voluntarily retired from one or two of his pastorates, against the

JOHN BILLINGS FISKE
At Time of Graduation

wishes of most of his church members, on the ground that another man could better meet the desires and creeds of the minority.

His greatest passion, next to reading and preaching, was that of angling, and no vacation went by that did not find him on some northern lake or river speculating on the outcome of a day's fishing or luxuriating in the beauty of nature all about him. Not long before Mr. Fiske's death, after forty years in the Congregational ministry, his son, who was commonly his fishing companion, published the following sonnet in his first book as a tribute to the sportsman's spirit and the generous life-purposes of his father and comrade:

A FISHERMAN

"And I will make you fishers of men"

A lover of the woods and streams and sky,
The quiet lake 'neath evening's level light
And all of Nature's summer sound and sight,
Thou look'st upon her with a poet's eye.
And when from drifting boat thou'st cast a fly,
To wait with eager heart for sudden bite
Where all the depths of mystery excite,
Thou still hast joy though all the fish go by.
And when red summer suns have sunk to rest
And thy true preacher's work has come again,
With tender care thou'rt happy in the quest
Of human souls; and with thy golden pen
Thou searchest for the good in every breast,
Still largely loving all that's best in men.

Horace Spencer Fiske, who established this prize in memory of his father, came to the University of Chicago as a lecturer on English Literature in the Extension Division in the year 1894. In 1903 he became Assistant Recorder of the University and so served until 1912, when he entered the Publication Department of the University of Chicago Press. He was editor of the *University Record* from 1903 until 1914, and associate editor of the *University of Chicago Magazine* from 1908 to 1914. Mr. Fiske's interest in art and literature is well known to all members of the University. He is a trustee of the Eagle's Nest Camp Association at Oregon, Illinois, an association of artists and authors. He is the author of *The Ballad of Manila Bay and Other Verses*, *Provincial Types in American Fiction*, *Chicago in Picture and Poetry*, *Poems on the University of Chicago*, *In Stratford and the Plays*, and *Ballads of Peace and War*, as well as a contributor to numerous anthologies.

The establishment of the John Billings Fiske Prize in Poetry was announced in the April, 1919, number of the *University Record*. The

conditions of the contest are generous. The donor desires that contributions be received from a member of any school or college of the University. There is no limitation as to length, subject, or form. Each contestant is required to submit a typewritten contribution signed with a pseudonym. Sealed within an accompanying envelope is a card bearing the pseudonym, the name of the contribution, and the name and address of the contributor. These envelopes are not opened until after the judges have reached their decision. In the future it is proposed that the poems submitted in the contest shall not have been published and the prize poem shall be first printed in the Report of the Committee of Award in the official publication of the University of Chicago, the *University Record*.

The Report of the Committee of Award, submitted through the chairman, Professor John M. Manly, Head of the Department of English, is as follows:

As chairman ex officio of the Committee for awarding the John Billings Fiske Prize for the best poem submitted by a member of the University, I have the honor to report as follows:

First of all, the committee wishes to express its pleasure in finding that the contest has produced so large a number of poems of fine quality. Not more than seven of the fifty submitted were found seriously lacking in technical competence or genuine poetic thought. On the other hand, there were at least half a dozen, to any one of which the committee would gladly have awarded even so important a prize as this; and there were as many more which barely failed to reach the high quality of the first half-dozen.

Approximately fifty poems or groups of poems were submitted for the competition. The poems were read separately by the members of the committee—Mr. Henry B. Fuller, Mr. Edgar Lee Masters, and myself—and a meeting was then held to compare conclusions and award the prize.

On the suggestion of Mr. Masters, each member of the committee, without consultation with the others, wrote on a slip of paper the title of the poem which in his opinion best deserved the prize. When these slips were read, it was found that all contained the same title.

The poem chosen is entitled "Li Sien," submitted with the pseudonym "Anne Mary Lyman."

Today, March 10, I have for the first time opened the envelope accompanying the poem to ascertain the true name of the writer. It is both amusing and a trifle embarrassing to find that this is Marian E. Manly.

Had I known that any person named Manly was among the contestants, I should have requested to be relieved from serving on the committee, but until the present moment, when I opened the envelope, I was not aware that such a person existed here or elsewhere in the world as Marian E. Manly.

Although only one prize can be awarded, the committee feels that the following poems are of so high a quality as to deserve especial mention:

1. A poem entitled "A Man Walks in the Wind," by Maurice Leseman.
2. A group of poems entitled "Of Certain Days," by Janet Lossley Lewis.

3. Four poems entitled "The Cripple," "Defiance," "Captivity," and "Hunger Inn," by Jessica North.

4. A poem entitled "The Mute Singer," by Carroll Y. Belknap.

5. Three poems entitled "My Fellow-Student," "Commencement," and "To James Frank Burke," by Ruth R. Pearson.

6. A group of poems entitled "The Little Country," by Elizabeth Eleanor Madox Roberts.

7. A poem entitled "Ambition," by Karl Kroeck.

8. A poem entitled "April," by Mary E. Quayle.

Respectfully submitted on behalf of the committee,

JOHN M. MANLY
Chairman ex officio

Anne Mary Lyman is the pen name of the winner of the prize in 1920—Miss Marian Esther Manly, of Delaware, Ohio. Miss Manly was born in Chung King, Western China, where her father and mother, Mr. and Mrs. W. E. Manly, were and still are missionaries of the Methodist Episcopal Board. Miss Manly lived in Chung King until she was thirteen years of age, when her parents returned to the United States on furlough and placed their daughter in the schools of Delaware, Ohio. After graduation from high school she remained in that city as a student of the Ohio Wesleyan University. In college she majored in biology but actually took more courses in English than in any other field. Twice she won the annual poetry prize of the Ohio Wesleyan University and once received the first award in the short-story contest. She received her degree of B.A. in 1919. In October of the same year she came to the University of Chicago as a graduate student, pursuing the regular course leading to the degree of M.D. She is a member of the Poetry Club of the University of Chicago. The prize poem Miss Manly began to write the day after Christmas and finished on the train when she was returning to the University for the Winter Quarter, 1920, the date for the receipt of poems in the competition.

LI SIEN

THE JOHN BILLINGS FISKE PRIZE POEM

By ANNE MARY LYMAN

The story of Li Sien, a legend from the classics of China, I have tried to tell in rhythm approaching or suggesting the cadence of Chinese speech, when the old men recount many tales, *boi-lung-mun-dsen*, in the sleepy afternoons; a rhythm not so much made up of accent as of rise and fall of tone. A rather free blank verse is our nearest approach to its measure.—A. M. L.

Li Sien, the courtesan (she whom men had named
"The Dweller at the Crossroads," and by others
Called "The Spider"), sat in the dust-flecked sunlight
By the window. All those days of darkness
Thus she had waited, silent, scarcely moving,
Feeling the warm sun creep across her shoulders,
Hearing the rasping summer-dry bamboos
Whispering serely by the roadside—listening—
Until, the darkness growing intolerable,
She clenched her hands, and unassuaging tears
Gathered and burned beneath her heavy eyelids.

And Ching Yuen-ho a fortnight's journey gone!
Northward, where the Temple of the Sun
Stands upon seven terraces, uplifting
Its gilded tower; and where the Imperial City
Glows with its roofs of malachite and scarlet. . . . .
Gone with the sound of bells—her heart missed time
When bells upon a bridle jingled past.
Even in such wise he had come—and then
The old reiterated tale unwound
Pitilessly.

His bridle rang with bells,
With bells of silver. Out of the South he rode.
In deep plum-purple satin, and brocade
Of saffron. And as he came that way, men spoke

And told him tales of one Li Sien, the woman
Called "The Spider," she who made her dwelling
Beside the Crossroads, in a high-walled garden.
As all roads met at the Crossroads, so all men
Reached at the last the center of the web,
Came at last to the ginkgo tree that stood
Beside her door, with saffron-colored leaves
In autumn; came to the whispering bamboo grove,
And saw, perhaps, a shadow at a window,
A hand against the lattice, white as jade
That has no vein or tint of palest green,
The priceless crystal jade—a scarlet sleeve,
Perhaps, or heard low laughter in the twilight.

The cherry tree that grew in Li Sien's garden
Was cloudy white with blossom when he came.
The petals drifted down along the eaves,
And blew across the highroad. Ching Yuen-ho,
Riding into the Crossroads Inn at dusk,
Felt something lightly touch his lips, as soft
As perfumed feathers of the Celestial Phoenix.
And after, when the night hung low and heavy
With great amazing stars, and Ching Yuen-ho
Smoked in the dark outside the gate, and dreamed
Again the dream that drew him out of the South—
The spirit kiss, the gust of cherry petals,
Dimmed with a sweet white mist his reverie;
The idle tales along the road obscured
His lofty contemplation, and a name
Made all of melody—"Li Sien, Li Sien!"—
Sang in the dark.

Between the slender stems
Of tall bamboos, a lighted window burned,
A yellow light behind thin paper shining,
Where dwelt Li Sien. And as he stared, unheeding,
A shadow moved across the square of light—
Returned and stood. . . . . The watcher in the darkness
Checked his breath for awe!

Oh slenderness!
Feathery slim bamboos, all curve and joy
Of exquisite line! The upward sweep of throat—
A song-bird soaring with a single note!
And marvel held the soul of Ching Yuen-ho,
And strong desire, so that he crossed and stood
Before her gate, and pleaded thus, all-humble:

"Not that a price of gold or emerald
Might buy such beauty, nevertheless I come
Of no mean ancestry, and in the South,
My home, am counted rich. These things I speak,
Not to extol my insignificance,
But that you may unbar your gates, perceiving
That I am noble born."

A stillness followed,
Wherein he heard the tumult of his heart,
And then a woman's voice, like running water:
"Traveler out of the South, I do perceive
That you are versed in all the lore pertaining
To your inestimable prestige." (A lilt
Of laughter underran her words, he thought.)
"But women, being by nature light of mind,
Love other proof of worthiness."

At this
His words were loosed. "Li Sien! O-mi-to-fu,
But you shall open to me! I have traveled
Seven days, hearing your name so often
It seemed to compass me about with wings,
As in the South our gray-winged sea-gulls follow
Our coastwise sailing-junks. And even now
I have seen shadow brighter than a flame,
Gray more beautiful than gold. . . . . Unbar!
For I am all hot anguish of desire."
And straining in the dark, his fingers pressed
Against the smoothness of the gates, until
The bolts were softly drawn, and stumblingly
He crossed the door-sill; and the lacquered gates
Swung to, behind him.

After many hours
A moon rose, almost at the full, and wrought
Embroidery of myriad slender leaves
Upon the high white wall of Li Sien's garden.
And after that a long time came the wind
And dawn together, and the eaves were white
With winnowed cherry petals. Last, the sun
Burned goldenly above a drift of cloud,
Stripping his glory of its clinging purple.

The secret high-walled garden at the Crossroads
Seemed something made by magic, quite unflawed.
The goldfish pool, the tiny lichened bridges,
The latticed tea-pavilion, mimic hills,
And rockeries for moss and ferns, the trees
Twisted and clipped to curious fancies, this
A crouching leopard, that a tall pagoda,
Dragons and gods and birds of leafy plumage—
All perfection formed in miniature!

Wistaria drooped upon the latticed *tindze*
With pendent sprays of palest violet,
And on the toy lagoon the lotus lay
Starlike; but all the garden's flowering seemed
To come to culmination and fulfilment
In very beauty made in flesh—Li Sien!
Clothed in an iridescent cloud of wings,
A thousand butterflies in shining silks
Of jewel colors, gold ghost-butterflies
Between, embroidered on the satin, black
And smooth and shining, even as her hair—
Her hair with little lights of amethyst
Under the sun, a hoop of mai-wha blossoms,
Ivory white and heavy scented, spanning
Its glossiness, and over either ear
A silken rose upon a silver pin—
So sat Li Sien upon the gray stone bench
Beneath her cherry tree; and Ching Yuen-ho
Regarding her, had need to touch her, else
Such utter beauty were beyond belief.

Her small hands lay together in her lap,
Till sudden she flung them up to him, her bracelets
Of jade and silver tinkling. "Make me a poem,
Scholar out of the South," she said. "The others
Gave silks and sandalwood and gold, but you—
You shall make me a poem."

Ching Yuen-ho,
Catching her hands, spoke tense and low. "Li Sien,
Even in jest we must not speak of others.
The others are not, since I crossed your threshold!
Oh, I have hurt your hands—forgive, beloved.
Touching the poem, it is that I have lived it,
Since aeons past I saw your slender shadow
Upon the window. This pale song I bring you
Is to the poem in my soul as dim
An image as your shadow to yourself.
But if you will, in this wise goes the song:

Who shall look into the sun at noon?
And who shall look into the splendor
Of Li Sien's eyes?
Therefore Li Sien has veiled her eyes;
Her lashes are like the branches of a willow tree,
Drooping above a stream.
Her eyelids are petals of the white azalea,
White and smooth.

In Fu-kien by the sea I have not found
One like to Li Sien.
I have come out of Fu-kien
I have come out of Fu-kien.
I have possessed the five celestial happinesses
In the pavilion of ever-renewed delight.

All the birds of Li Sien's garden
Are azure-winged Chin-niao,
Rejoicing in lovers' secrets.
I have told them a tale that is new;
I have told them of Li Sien's eyes.
I have told them of Li Sien's eyes,
And even the heaven-born Phoenix,
With cinnabar-colored crest,
Shall envy the blue Chin-niao.

. . . . . .

Blossom and fruit the cherry tree had borne;
The lotus-lilies on the goldfish pool
Became green pods of seeds; and summer came
With white, oppressive skies; and time was past
For roses. After that the ginkgo tree
Beside the gate was kindled as a flame,
And stood in pride of brave imperial yellow,
Until the fan-shaped satiny little leaves,
Freed by the wind, went gaily venturing—
A thousand thousand sulphur butterflies.
Alone of the fading year's largesse remained
The turbulent-headed tall chrysanthemums,
Crimson and rose and white and gold—and gold!
The last defiant flare of magnificence
Flung in the face of winter's gray advance.

"Have I grown older with the year?" Li Sien
Asked wistfully. "For though it is acknowledged
A very honorable estate, and many
Desire a plenitude of years fulfilled,
I have so loved unblemished, shining youth!
To feel the little creeping net of lines
Growing into my face! To see my hair
Whiten as rice in harvest, and the light
Die in my eyes!"

But Ching Yuen-ho made answer,
"Your hair is as a river of utter darkness;
Your brows are curved like slender willow leaves;
Your hands are crystal jade and ivory;
Your mouth a scarlet pomegranate blossom,
A scarlet blossom of desire! Beloved,
Such youth and love as ours, how shall it end,
Except by death? For after days so many
I have not counted them, desire fails not,
And love knows no surcease. . . . . But now give heed;
Here is a poem I have made for you:

> As the moon is to the stars,
> So is Li Sien among all women of the earth.
> Having Li Sien, what shall I desire?

The time of falling leaves,
And the flying of wild geese,
And winnowing of grain is come;
But Li Sien is a black butterfly
Upon a yellow chrysanthemum;
And we shall not be afraid for the passing of the year.

"Poet-lover of mine," she cried, "what were you
In the world, before the current bore you
Into the sluggish backflow?"

"I was a nothing,
Uncreated, formless, roused into being
Under you eyes."

"But tell me truly—not
In flattery (for I am well aware
Fu-kien knows not my name)—why came you hither
Out of the South? What journey did you follow?"

"Oh, Li Sien, a hundred years ago,
Before I found the center of desire,
My heart was troubled with an aspiration
Empty and vain. I sought the Phoenix City,
Pekin, thinking to make myself a name,
To win the imperial degree—a dream
For fools to cherish. I have long forgotten."

Then lowly knelt Li Sien among the leaves,
And bowed her shining head upon the earth;
"*O-mi-to-fu*, forgive the sin I sinned,
That I have hindered from his destiny
A scholar who had else inscribed his name
Among the Eight Immortals! Oh unworthy!
That I should circumvent the gods, who planned
My lord for wisdom's crown of wisdom!"

Thus
Li Sien abased herself, and wept, then pleaded,
"Leave me now, and let it not be said
My lord took pleasure in a harlot's lips,
Crimsoned by artifice, when from the mouth
Of sages treasure seven fold is gathered."

Then spoke Ching Yuen-ho, "The early morning
Of our eternity of love is yet
A redness in the east; why waste our day
In threshing chaff?" And when she would not rise,
But still entreated, "Go! It is not yet
Too late," he answered, "They do well, indeed,
Who name you 'Spider of the Crossroads.' Nay,
I am so bound with fetters of your weaving,
Albeit by mine own desire and will,
I cannot leave you. Ah, Li Sien, your eyes—
Your eyes are starlit water under the span
Of heaven-aspiring bridges. . . . . I shall find
No glory in the world beyond your eyes!"

At this her face grew gray and pitiful
Beneath the blossom-white and gay vermilion;
Nevertheless her voice was lightly scornful:
"A wanton's eyes! A precious bargain surely,
When you have paid for it with all your dreams!
But it shall not be said Li Sien had part
In such unrighteousness; my lord shall win
The heritage the fates apportioned to him."

Then she fled from him, for all her soul
Was shaken with the knowledge of the thing
She had to do. And Ching Yuen-ho pursued,
And came upon her, bowed beside her window,
Hiding her face upon her arms, her hair
Uncoiled, the amber pin that held it clenched
Like a dagger in her hand . . . . and some presage
Of dire disaster grew upon his mind,
So that he stood within the door, and said
No word.

At last from a great way off she spoke,
Her voice as thin and gray as though she were
Already dead: "So you shall leave me now,
For that which held you thrall I have destroyed. . . . .
It was not meet a follower of Confucius
Should be diverted from his destined course
For a woman's eyes—and she a courtesan!"

She hid her face, that he might have remembrance
Of that Li Sien whose eyes were starlit water
Under the span of heaven-aspiring bridges;
And listening, heard him draw a sudden breath
Sharply between his teeth; and heard him go
With stumbling, hasty step, the door behind him
Swinging and clattering in the wind; thereafter
A little space, the empty clink of bells. . . . .
. . . . . .

Who would believe the dark could be so vivid
With beauty clamoring at the gates, with life
Resurgent, laying hold upon the soul,
When all one asked was sleep and soothing silence,
So that one might forget? Withdrawn, aloof,
Li Sien craved only death in life—that peace—
That utter loss of self—Nirvana—sleep. . . . .
But life insistent beat upon her blindness
With light and movement, vivid as a play
Upon a stage. The highroad's pageantry
Entered her window with a thousand sounds—
The creak of chair-poles, cry of an orange-vendor,
The oddly-cadenced rhythm of the song
Chanted by coffin-bearers, or the clash
Of brazen marriage music.

So for moons
Uncounted (moons unseen are very long)
Li Sien wore coarse and common blue, nor chose
To make her body beautiful with silks,
Nor would she heed her handmaid when she said,
"Lady, the seller of flowers was here but now
With garlands wrought in many quaint devices,
Meet to adorn your hair. Oh, give me leave
To make you fair with powder and vermilion
And butterfly-embroidered robes again.

Bells on the highroad! When would passing bells
Lose poignancy and cruel significance?
Bells on the highroad, stopping at the Inn—
Surely the bells were silver—then a voice
At the door—and all her blood stood still!

"Li Sien!
Oh, my beloved, do not hide your face.
I am returned—the Imperial degree,
Appointment as a magistrate, the seal
Of office (I had it from the Emperor's hand—
But feel it here!)—I have them all—all!
Forgive my over-buoyancy, believe
It is not pride, but gladness in achievement
Of that which you had prized and purchased dearly.
For I was cleansed of pride and lustfulness
All in a moment, when your spirit rose
And stood up strong and shining, like a sword
Cleaving our lesser love of flesh. Li Sien,
Humble at heart, I take you in my arms,
And ask if you will come with me, and kneel
Before the tablets of my fathers' fathers,
In Fu-kien by the sea; and drink with me
From wine-cups linked together, so observing
All rites whereby the blessing of High Heaven
Shall shine on lawful love. . . . ."

When night was come,
The smell of spring a promise in the air,
This song he made her:

Her spirit is as the long waves of the sea.
Her spirit is as a night with stars,
Infinite.
Who shall understand
The magnitude thereof?

THE QUADRANGLE CLUB

In 1914 overtures to buy the land under the present Quadrangle Clubhouse were made to the Club by the Trustees of the University. The University desired to own the entire block upon which the building stands, that it might be cleared for the chapel. Furthermore it wanted to own the fee of the entire block and thereby the more easily secure the vacation of the alleys which twice bisect it. The negotiations eventuated in the contract executed in May, 1916. The University has obtained the desired vacation of the alleys.

The University's Committee on Buildings and Grounds and the Club's Building Committee after many joint and separate conferences received from the architect, Mr. Howard Shaw, the drawings for the proposed clubhouse. These were formally approved by both committees. When the work of drafting these plans began it was believed that the clubhouse could be built for the $100,000 provided for its cost by the University's offer. The proposed clubhouse by no means exceeds in size, materials, conveniences, or necessities the requirements demanded for such a club as this, in such a neighborhood as this, representing such an institution as the University of Chicago. The cost of building it, however, once estimated at $100,000, according to bids received in the autumn of 1919, will be $186,733, exclusive of architect's fees.

In this emergency the Trustees of the University offered under certain conditions to increase by 50 per cent the amount of money to be provided for a new building. The exact language of this offer is as follows:

> The University is ready to proceed with the erection of the clubhouse provided for in the agreement between the University and the Club; that the University will increase its contribution for building the clubhouse from the $100,000 agreed upon to $150,000 whenever, before April 1, 1920, the Quadrangle Club shall formally satisfy the University that it has secured in cash, or that satisfactory arrangements have been made to secure, an amount sufficient to cover the cost of the building over and above the $150,000 to be contributed by the University, exclusive of furnishings; or, should the foregoing arrangement not be effected, that the Club be requested to extend for five years the time for building the clubhouse by the University, and that the University extend for five years the period of occupancy of the present building by the Club; it being understood that at the expiration of the said period the University will contribute toward the erection of the new building over and above the $100,000 stipulated in the contract a sum equal to that contributed by the Club, the University's contribution in no event to exceed $50,000.

Confident of the moral and financial backing of the membership the Council recommended to the Club:

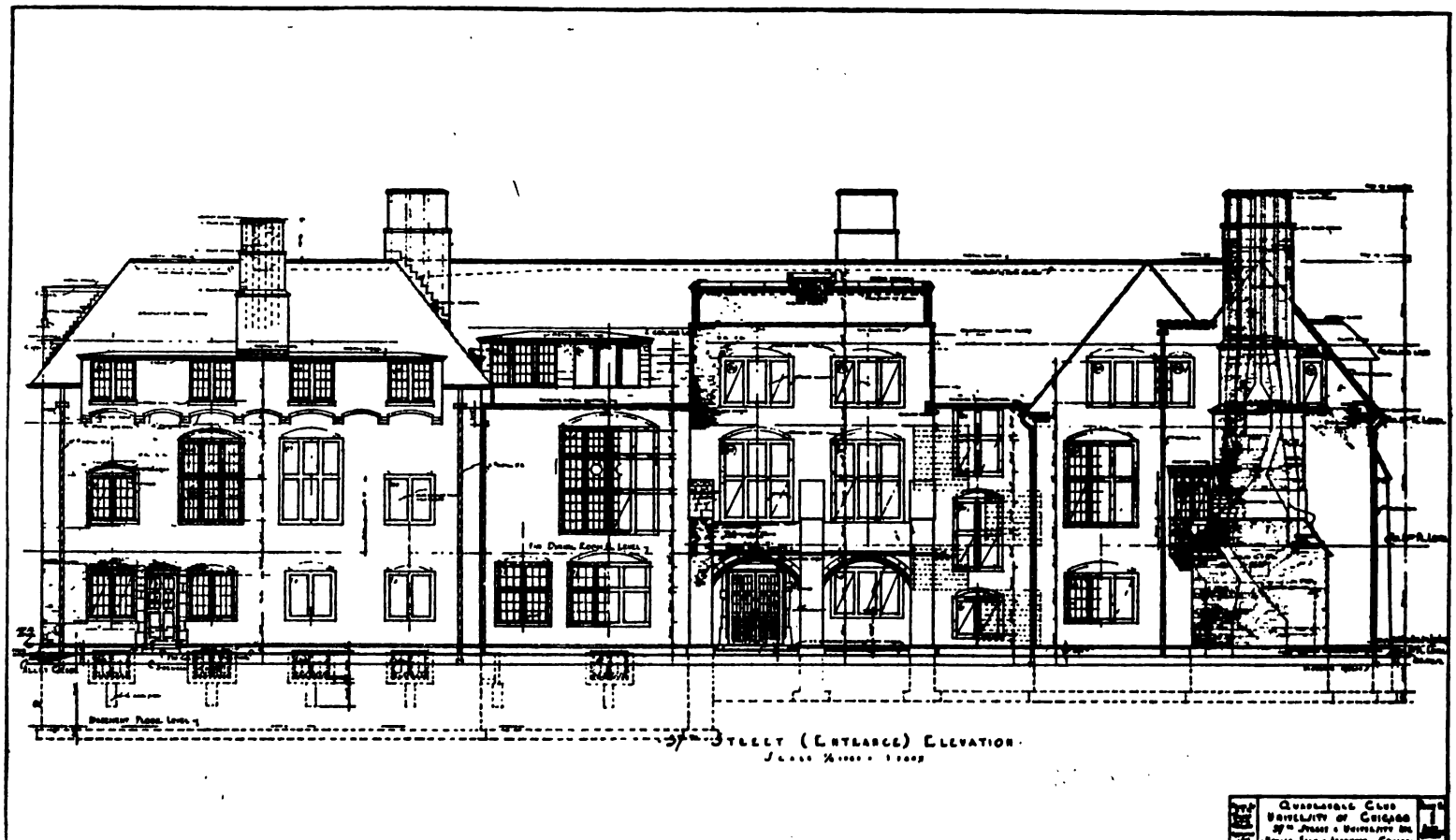
1. That it accept the new offer of the University, and notify its Trustees that the Club will co-operate in erecting the new building and in raising an amount sufficient, together with the $100,000 heretofore contracted by the University of Chicago to be paid by it, and the further sum of $50,000 offered by the University of Chicago through the proposal of its Board of Trustees in their letter dated December 11, 1919, to complete the new house on the plans approved by the University and the Club.

2. That it authorize the Council to appoint (*a*) a finance committee to secure the needed funds, and (*b*) a building committee to co-operate with the University and the architect as the new building progresses.

These recommendations of the Council when presented at the meeting of members of the Club held January 29, 1920, were unanimously accepted. Subsequently a Campaign Committee was appointed under the general direction of Mr. Lucius Teter, with Professor J. H. Tufts, who later was succeeded by Professor H. G. Gale, as chairman of the Faculty group and Mr. Warren Gorrell as chairman of the neighborhood members. The Faculty group undertook to raise $12,500, and the neighborhood group made the same sum its objective, the balance to be raised by Mr. Lucius Teter among other friends of the club. Apparently the sum necessary to satisfy the conditions laid down by the Trustees will be met by April 1 and the way will be open for the immediate construction of the new clubhouse free of debt.

The new Quadrangle Clubhouse will be erected on the southeast corner of Fifty-seventh Street and University Avenue, the structure being erected east of the University Avenue building line and close to the north end of the lot. South of the building the land will be graded and four tennis courts provided. The building and grounds will occupy the entire space at present vacant.

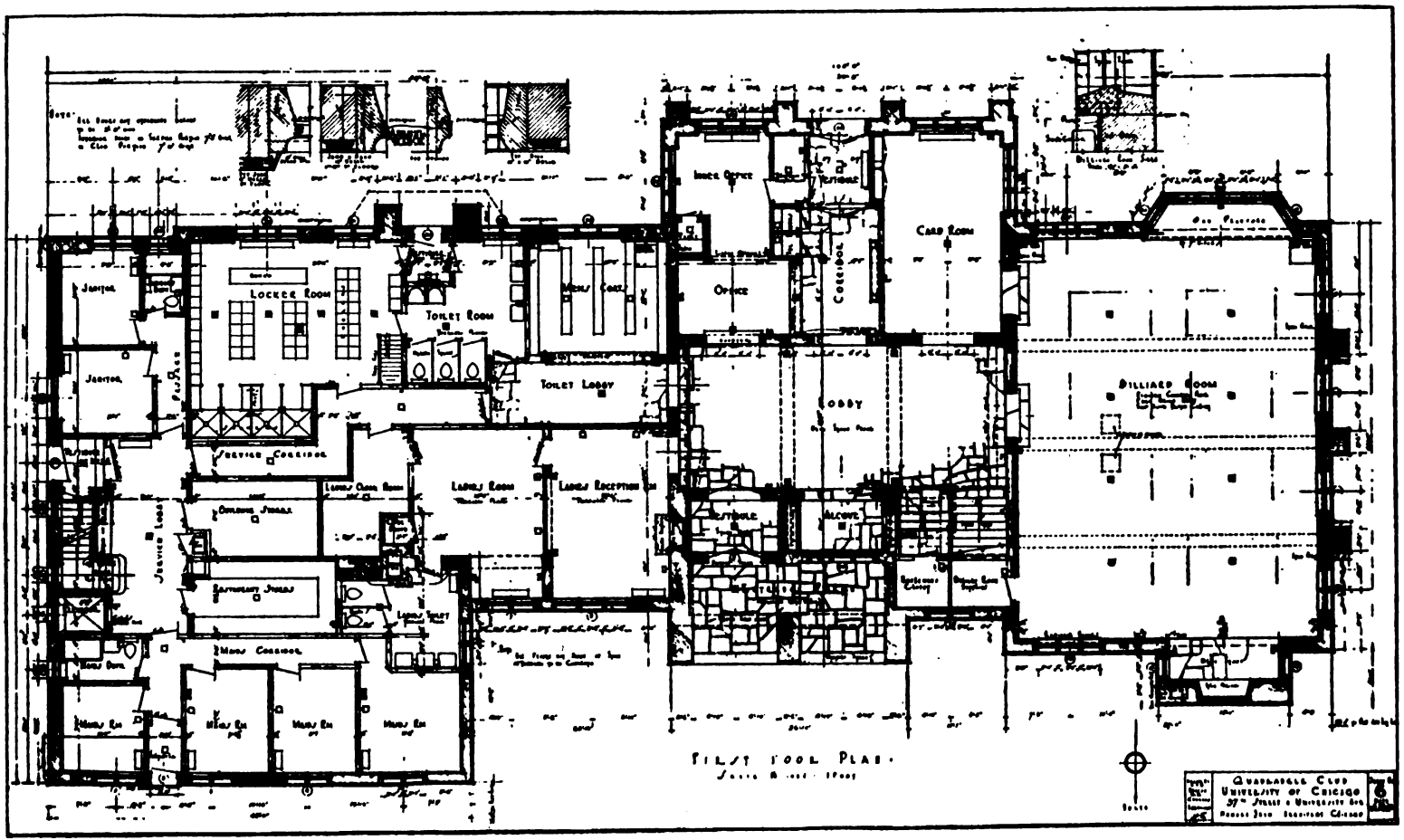
Because of the established architectural norm of the University as represented so beautifully on the southwest corner in the Tower Group and on the northwest corner in Bartlett Gymnasium, and because of the intention of the Trustees of the Disciples' Divinity House ultimately to build a structure which will conform to the University architectural plan, the Building Committee of the Quadrangle Club determined on modified Tudor-Gothic for the clubhouse. Mindful of the beautiful effects attained at Hampton Court and in many English manor houses through the use of brick, mindful also of the desirability of at once conforming to the University norm and of securing some variety in color the Committee and the architect, Mr. Howard Shaw, agreed on a structure of colonial red brick, stone trimmings, and a graduated slate



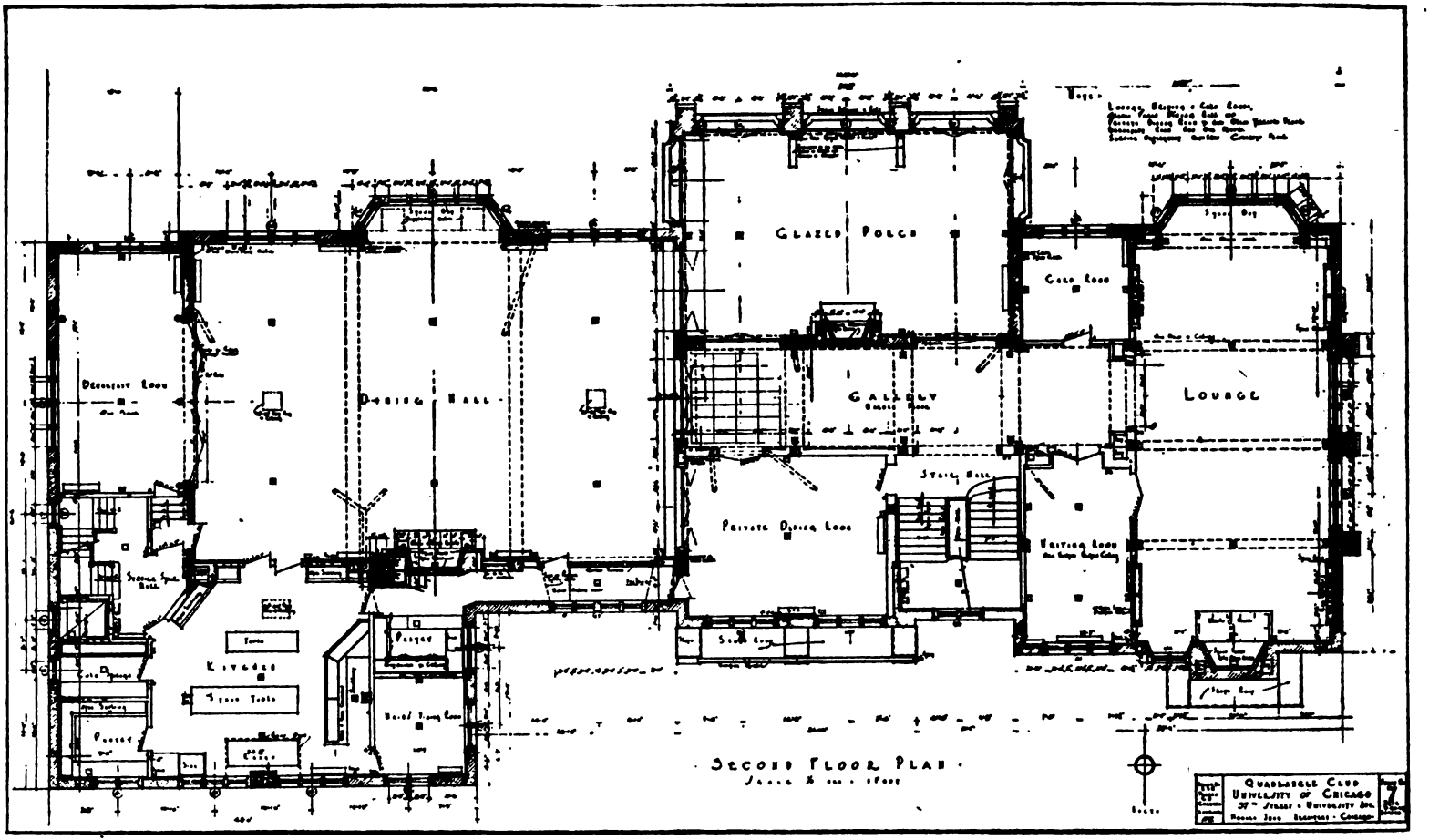
THE NEW QUADRANGLE CLUBHOUSE

The Fifty-seventh Street Front. The material will be red brick with stone trimmings and slate roof

The South (Garden) Front, from the Tennis Courts



First-Floor Plan: Servants' Rooms, Locker-, Toilet-, and Coat-Rooms, Ladies' Rooms, Offices, Cardroom, and Billiard-Room



Second-Floor Plan: Kitchens, Breakfast-Room, Dining-Room (35′6″ by 54′), Glazed Porch, and Lounge (22′ by 44′)
The third floor contains twelve bedrooms with private bath, and five suites with private bath

roof of variegated color. The Gothic feeling will be attained less through expensive stone carving than through the masses and lines of the building, although there will be some ornamental work on the structure.

The building is one hundred and forty-five feet, nine inches long, and from forty-eight feet to seventy-three feet, six inches wide. The clubhouse will contain 354,000 cubic feet—twice as large as the present building. The construction is fireproof throughout.

The main entrance in Fifty-seventh Street is marked by a porch, flagged with New York bluestone. Through a vestibule one enters a lobby sixteen by thirty-four feet paved like the vestibule in bluestone. The walls of the lobby are Bedford stone, the ceilings sand-finish plaster with oak beams. The ladies' reception room, fourteen feet by eighteen feet, contains a stone fireplace. The walls of this room are paneled, the floor black terrazzo. Adjacent are the other rooms of the women's suite. In the lobby, south of the entrance to the ladies' rooms, is the lobby leading to the men's coatroom, lockers, and shower-rooms. The rest of this floor is given over to service-rooms including three maids' rooms and two janitors' rooms, a restaurant storeroom and a building storeroom. Returning to the lobby one finds directly opposite the entrance the counter of the office, and behind this outer office an inner one with a vault. From the center of the south wall of the lobby an entrance leads past the office and telephone booths to the south door, which opens on the tennis courts. To the right of this corridor is the cardroom, fourteen feet, six inches, by twenty-three feet. Through a door in the west wall of the lobby one enters the billiard-room, thirty-five feet by forty-six feet, large enough for eight tables, with a split brick fireplace in the alcove at the north end of the room and a raised oak platform in the bay window at the south. This room has a concrete floor; the walls are brick and stone, and the ceiling has heavy beams with ornamental plaster. Returning to the lobby we find to the left, just outside of the billiard-room, the stone stair with wrought-iron rail leading to the second floor. Just at the head of the stair a door leads to the left to a private dining-room eighteen feet by twenty-two feet, six inches. To the south directly opposite the stair and south of the gallery connecting the dining-room and the lounge is the inclosed porch, in which there is a large stone fireplace. This porch overlooking the tennis courts and protected from sun and storm is likely to become a favorite room. The lounge is at the west end of the building on this same floor. It is a room twenty-two by forty-nine feet, with a large fireplace at the north end and a bay window at the south and two large

mullioned windows in the west wall. The walls are paneled in oak to the ceiling; the ceiling is plaster, between oak beams. A door from the lounge and a door from the gallery lead into the writing-room, twelve feet by twenty-one feet, with vaulted ceiling and terrazzo floor. The cardroom occupies the space between the lounge and the closed porch to the south of the gallery. The rest of this floor is given over to the kitchen and dining-room. In the northeast corner is the kitchen with adjacent pantries, cold storage, elevator, service stairs, pastry-room, and maids' dining-room. The main dining-room was planned not only in relation to the kitchen but in connection with possible entertainments to be given in the Club. The dining-room itself is thirty-six feet by fifty-five feet. The floor is black terrazzo. The dining-room is wainscoted with oak to a height of seven feet, and the walls above the wainscot are of stone to the ceiling. The south wall has a large stone bay window flanked by large mullioned windows. The north wall has in it a large fireplace. In front of the doors to the kitchens and pantries is a screen concealing the passageway between the private dining-room and kitchen but revealing a large mullioned window to the north. To the east of the dining-hall, really a part of it, is the so-called breakfast-room, which has an oak floor raised above the floor of the dining-room. For breakfast or during the holidays the large dining-room will be shut off, and the few patrons of the dining-room will be put in the breakfast-room, which will have the south and east sun. For entertainments the breakfast-room will serve as a stage fifteen feet by twenty-seven feet with a proscenium eighteen feet wide. The audience can be seated not only in the dining-hall but in the inclosed porch, the gallery, and the private dining-room. In this way provision can be made for over four hundred and fifty seats with a good view of the stage.

The third floor is given over to living quarters, twenty-one rooms being provided, all with baths, including a suite to be used as a University guestroom.

EVENTS: PAST AND FUTURE

THE ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTEENTH CONVOCATION

The One Hundred and Fifteenth Convocation was held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, Tuesday, March 16, at 4:00 P.M. The Convocation Address, "The Political Progress of the English Working Man," was delivered by Conyers Read, Ph.D., Professor of History, University of Chicago.

The award of honors was: Harold Lasswell and Max Wester, Civil Government Prize; Marian Esther Manly, The John Billings Fiske Prize in Poetry. The election of the following students as associate members to Sigma Xi was announced: Dorothy Marian Ashland, Ira Sprague Bowen, James Milton Elgin, Vestus Twiggs Jackson, Alfred Edward Jurist, Arthur Preston Locke, Henry Castle Albert Mead, Ray Will Metcalf, Avery Adrian Morton, Eloise Parsons, Harold John Stockman, Imogene Dolores Willard. The election of the following students as members of Sigma Xi was announced: Ira Garnett Barber, Clarence Ehnie Broeker, Ying Chang Cheng, Marie Dye, Warren Walter Ewing, Daniel Jerome Fisher, Margaret Bradley Fuller, Forrest Alva Kingsbury, Katharine Lucille McCluskey, Arthur Crane McFarlan, Motonori Matsuyama, Edison Pettit, Lillian Grace Reynolds, Garvin Dennis Shallenberger, Herman Bernhard Siems, Williams Ralph Smythe. The election of the following students to the Beta of Illinois Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa was announced: Samuel King Allison, Blanche Beatrice Boyer, David Mandel Halfant, Samuel Jacob Jacobsohn (June, 1918), Carl Gilbert Johnson (December, 1919), Donald Henry King, Harold Leo Klawans, Vera Bena Leibovitz, Luella Esther Nadelhoffer, Edgar Burke Reading, Emil Durbin Ries (June, 1919), Esther Sabel (December, 1919), Ruth Emily Worthington.

Honorable mention for excellence in the work of the Junior Colleges: George William Adams, Isaac Bencowitz, Carroll Lane Fenton, John Gifford, Julius Gordon, William Drumm Johnston, Jr., Carolyn Nicholas Macdonald, Victor Carl Milliken, Herman Theodore Mossberg, Henry Albert Rabe, Milton Steinberg, Emma Elizabeth Straub, Zok Tsung Wang, Ruth Elvira Westlund, Edward DeWitt Wines, William Augustine Zeiler. Honorable mention for excellence in the work leading to the certificate of the College of Education: M. Ethel Brown. The Bachelor's degree was conferred with honors on the following students: Simon Harry Alster, Edgar Bernhard, Blanche Beatrice Boyer, Stanley Maxwell Crowe, Irma Estevan Cushing, Kathleen Knox Foster, David Mandel Halfant, Samuel Jacob Jacobsohn, Carl Gilbert Johnson, Ernest Oliver Larson, Vera Bena Leibovitz, Ivy Isabel Lidman, Mary Virginia Milligan, Dewey Self Patton, Joseph Jerry Pelc, Emil Durbin Ries, Esther Sabel, Ida Douges Staudt, Winfred Marcus Wagner, Edith Carrie Wilson. Honors for excellence in particular departments of the Senior Colleges were awarded to the following students: Simon Harry Alster, Political Science; Edgar Bernhard, Law; Blanche Beatrice Boyer, Latin and Greek; Clara Adaline Chamberlain, English and General Literature; Irma Estevan Cushing, English; David Mandel Halfant, History and Political Economy; Samuel Jacob Jacobsohn, Mathematics; Samuel Jacob Jacobsohn, Physics; Carl Gilbert Johnson, Anatomy and Physiology; Ernest Oliver Larson, Anatomy; Vera Bena Leibovitz, Political Economy; Ivy Isabel Lidman, English; Ivy Isabel Lidman, Romance; Joseph Jerry Pelc, Chemistry; Emil Durbin Ries, Chemistry; Esther Sabel, English; Edith Carrie Wilson, History.

Degrees and titles were conferred as follows: *The Colleges:* the certificate of the College of Education, 6; the degree of Bachelor of Arts, 2; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy, 41; the degree of Bachelor of Science, 20; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy in Education, 9; the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education, 1; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy in Commerce and Administration, 7; *The Divinity School:* the degree of Master of Arts, 1; the degree of Bachelor of Divinity, 2; the degree

of Doctor of Philosophy, 2; *The Law School:* the degree of Bachelor of Laws, 1; the degree of Doctor of Law, 6; *The Graduate Schools of Arts, Literature, and Science:* the degree of Master of Arts, 6; the degree of Master of Science, 3; the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 5. The total number of degrees conferred was 111.

The Convocation Prayer Service was held at 10:30 A.M., Sunday, March 14, in the Reynolds Club. At 11:00 A.M., in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, the Convocation Religious Service was held. The preacher was the Reverend Frank Wakeley Gunsaulus, D.D., LL.D., President of Armour Institute of Technology.

THE ONE HUNDRED AND SIXTEENTH CONVOCATION

The address at the One Hundred Sixteenth Convocation will be delivered by President David Prescott Barrows, Ph.D., 1897, LL.D., of the University of California. Dr. Barrows was born in Chicago, June 27, 1873. He received his A.B. at Pomona College in California in 1894 and in the following year received from the University of California the degree of M.A. In 1897 he was made a doctor of philosophy of the University of Chicago, his department being anthropology. In 1900 he went to Manila as superintendent of the schools of Manila. Subsequently he became director of education of the Philippine Islands, resigning in 1909 to become professor of education and dean of the graduate school of the University of California. In 1911 he became professor of political science and in 1913 dean of the faculties. In 1917 he was a major in the American army and was on active duty as intelligence officer in the Philippine Islands. Later he served in Siberia, especially at Vladivostok.

The Phi Beta Kappa address will be delivered by another doctor of the University of Chicago, Edwin Emery Slosson, Ph.D., 1902, Chemistry. Dr. Slosson was born in Albany, Kansas, June 7, 1865. He received the degree of B.S. from the University of Kansas in 1890 and in 1892 the degree of M.S. From the University of Chicago he received the degree of Ph.D. in Chemistry in 1902. He became a member of Phi Beta Kappa at the University of Kansas. After serving as professor of chemistry in the University of Wyoming and chemist of the Wyoming Agricultural Experiment Station from 1891 to 1903, he gave up his university work and devoted himself to literature, especially the popular exposition of scientific subjects. In 1903 he became literary editor of the *Independent*, of which for many years he has been managing editor. In 1912 he was appointed one of the staff of the School of Journalism of Columbia University. He is the author of *Great American Universities*, 1910; *Major Prophets of Today*, 1914; *Six Major Prophets*, 1917. Dr. Slosson's subject at the annual meeting of the Beta of Illinois Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa will be "Americanization—Uniting the United States."

GENERAL ITEMS

The famous poet and playwright, William Butler Yeats, delivered a William Vaughn Moody Lecture at the University of Chicago on the evening of March 2. The subject of his address was "The Friends of My Youth." Mr. Yeats was a guest of the University many years ago when his play *The Land of Heart's Desire* was presented in the Reynolds Club Theater.

Announcement is made from Paris that Professor Albert A. Michelson, Head of the Department of Physics, has been made a foreign associate member of the French Academy of Sciences, to succeed the late Lord Rayleigh.

Announcement is made that among the new members of the Divinity School Faculty for the coming Summer Quarter will be Professor T. R. Glover, of St. John's College, Cambridge University, England. Professor Glover, who has been university lecturer in ancient history at Cambridge and Wilde Lecturer in comparative religion at Oxford, will give courses in the Department of Church History during the School Term of the Summer Quarter. Professor Glover rendered conspicuous service in the war in connection with the Y.M.C.A. organization.

Professor Anton J. Carlson, Chairman of the Department of Physiology, has recently been made an honorary M.D. by the University of Lund, Sweden. Professor Carlson has also been made a

corresponding member of the French Biological Society.

Assistant Professor Rudolph Altrocchi, of the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures, has recently been made an officer d'Académie by the French government in recognition of his war services as an American liaison officer at Lyons and as commandant of the school detachment. Before going to France Professor Altrocchi was associated with Captain Charles E. Merriam in Italy in connection with the Bureau of American Propaganda, and later was awarded a diploma of merit by the Italian government.

The sculpture exhibit of Albin Polášek, the Chicago sculptor, which was recently opened under the auspices of the Renaissance Society in the Classics Building at the University of Chicago, continued until March 5. Mr. Polášek, who gave the opening address on "The Art of the Sculptor," is head of the department of sculpture at the Art Institute, Chicago, and has had many honors, among them the award of the Prix de Rome at the American Academy in Rome, the Widener Gold Medal at the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, and the Logan Medal at the Art Institute of Chicago.

Assistant Professor Gerald L. Wendt, of the Department of Chemistry, has been appointed Associate Editor of the *Journal of the Radiological Society of North America*. Dr. Wendt, who for a year was junior chemist in radioactivity, United States Bureau of Mines, and later Instructor in Quantitative Analysis and Radioactivity, University of Chicago, was appointed to his present position in 1918.

Students of literature will be especially interested in the announcement of the coming of George Edward Woodberry, the American poet, to the University of Chicago for a lecture, May 4, on the William Vaughn Moody Foundation. His subject will be "Longfellow."

Mr. Woodberry, who for many years was professor of comparative literature at Columbia, is the author of *The North Shore Watch*, *The Life of Edgar Allan Poe* in two volumes, and *The Inspiration of Poetry* as well as the editor of Shelley's and Poe's complete works and the collected poems of Rupert Brooke.

In response to an invitation to be guests of the Japanese universities, the University of Chicago baseball team will visit Japan in the Spring Quarter, leaving Chicago at the close of the quarterly examinations at the end of March. The team will play practice games in California for two weeks, probably with the teams of Leland Stanford Junior University and the University of California. The squad, including six Seniors, three Juniors, and three Sophomores, will be led by Clarence Vollmer, captain, and will sail on the "Tenyo Maru" from San Francisco on April 17.

Games will be played with Waseda University in Tokyo and with other universities in Japan, and the players will return to Chicago in time for work in the Summer Quarter. In 1910 and again in 1915 University of Chicago teams visited Japan, and were highly successful, winning ten and twelve games respectively.

At the recent annual meeting of the American Society of Zoölogists, Professor Frank R. Lillie, Chairman of the Department of Zoölogy at the University of Chicago, was elected member of the Division of Biology and Agriculture, National Research Council, to serve three years. He was also made a member of the advisory board of the American Society of Zoölogists. Professor Charles Manning Child, retiring president of the society, has been made a member of the executive committee for five years.

The Learned Lady in England; 1650–1760 is the title of a new volume by Professor Myra Reynolds, of the Department of English at the University of Chicago, which is to be issued this spring as one of the Vassar semi-centennial series. Dr. Reynolds, who is a graduate and trustee of Vassar College, has also written *The Treatment of Nature in English Poetry* published by the University of Chicago Press. She received her Doctor's degree from the University of Chicago in 1895.

Among the new and forthcoming volumes announced by the University of Chicago Press are an *Introduction to the Peace Treaties*, by Arthur Pearson Scott;

Impressions of Italy in War Time, by Charles Edward Merriam; "The Problem of Democracy," Vol. XIV, *Papers and Proceedings of the American Sociological Society; The Great Awakening in the Middle Colonies*, by Charles H. Maxson; *The Geography of the Ozark Highland of Missouri*, by Carl O. Sauer; *A Field and Laboratory Guide in Physical Nature-Study*, by Elliot R. Downing; *The Relation between Religion and Science: A Biological Approach*, by Angus S. Woodburne; *Pronunciation of the Names of Italian Painters*, by Ernest H. Wilkins; and *Giacosa, Tristi Amori*, edited by Rudolph Altrocchi and B. N. Woodbridge ("University of Chicago Italian Series").

New editions and impressions announced include *A Short History of Belgium*, with a new chapter on Belgium in the War, by Léon Van der Essen, of the University of Louvain; *A Short History of Japan*, by Ernest W. Clement; *Outlines of Chinese Art*, by John C. Ferguson; *Everyday Greek: Greek Words in English*, by Horace A. Hoffman; *A Short History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age*, by George H. Gilbert; and *Current Economic Problems*, by Walton H. Hamilton.

Joseph Pennell, the famous etcher and author, was announced to speak under the auspices of the Renaissance Society at the University of Chicago on the evening of April 21. Mr. Pennell's subject was "Billboards: A National Menace, a National Curse." The lecture which Mr. Pennell gave under this title has already made a striking impression among publicists and leaders of thought in the art world.

Margaret Deland, the widely known American novelist, author of *Old Chester Tales* and *The Awakening of Helena Ritchie*, gave a William Vaughn Moody Lecture on April 8. Mrs. Deland's subject was "The Opportunity of the Dull Job."

The first University Preacher in April at the University of Chicago was Dean William Wallace Fenn, of the Harvard Divinity School, who spoke on April 4 and 11. Professor Harry Emerson Fosdick, of Union Theological Seminary, New York, spoke on April 18, and Professor George A. Johnston Ross, of the same institution, on April 25.

President Lynn Harold Hough, of Northwestern University, will be the first preacher in May, and will be followed in that month by Dean Charles R. Brown, of the Yale School of Religion, Rev. Cornelius Woelfkin, of the Fifth Avenue Baptist Church, New York City, and Professor Allan Hoben, of Carleton College, Minnesota.

Under the auspices of the Renaissance Society of the University of Chicago an illustrated lecture on "Rembrandt" was given April 14 by Dr. A. J. Barnouw, Queen Wilhelmina Lecturer at Columbia University.

Mr. Jan Garrigue Masaryk, Czecho-Slovak chargé d'affaires at Washington, gave a public lecture, March 30, on the subject of "Czecho-Slovakia." He is the son of the president of that republic, who once was a lecturer at the University of Chicago.

Professor Edwin Oakes Jordan, Chairman of the Department of Hygiene and Bacteriology at the University of Chicago, has been elected a member of the International Health Board of the Rockefeller Foundation.

The tenth annual meeting of the Association of Business Officers of Universities and Colleges of the Middle West will be held at the University of Chicago on May 7 and 8. The president of the association, Mr. Trevor Arnett, who is auditor of the University and a secretary of the General Education Board, will present a paper on "The Present Trend of Financing Endowed Institutions. "Insurance and Annuities" will be discussed by Mr. Nathan C. Plimpton, assistant auditor, and "University Mail Service," by Mr. John F. Moulds, University cashier. The universities of Wisconsin, Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Iowa, Chicago, and Cincinnati will be represented at the meeting.

AWARD OF FELLOWSHIPS 1920-1921

ROY HIDEMICHI AKAGI A.B., University of California, 1918	History
EDWARD STONE AKELEY A.B., University of South Dakota, 1915	Physics
MARY BERNARD ALLEN Ph.B., 1918	History
CHRISTIAN EMIL BALE A.B., 1904 A.M., 1906	English
HAROLD BENNETT A.B., University of Toronto, 1915	Latin
VIOLA BLACKBURN A.B., Wellesley College, 1918	English
HELEN BOURQUIN A.B., Colorado College, 1915 M.S., 1916	Physiology
CLARENCE EHNIE BROEKER S.B., University of Illinois, 1919	Chemistry
ELIZABETH CABLE BROOK A.B., University of Kansas, 1912 A.M., *ibid.*, 1913	History
THOMAS D. BROOKS A.B., Baylor University, 1903	Education
BLANCHE ELIZABETH MAE BROTHERTON A.B., Smith College, 1915 A.M., 1919	Latin
ADOLF AUGUST BRUX Grad., Concordia College, 1913 Grad., Concordia Seminary, 1917	Old Testament
WILLIAM PIERCE CARSON A.B., Furman University, 1913 Ph.B., 1915 A.M., *ibid.*, 1916	English
EARL CLARK CASE B. of Education, Illinois State Normal, 1915	Geography
ERNEST JOHN CHAVE A.B., McMaster University, 1906 B.Th., *ibid.*, 1910	Practical Theology
CARL ADDINGTON DAWSON A.B., Acadia University, 1912	Practical Theology
WILLIAM DIAMOND A.B., University of Manitoba, 1915	German
ALFRED PAUL DORJAHN A.B., 1917	Greek
MARY REDINGTON ELY A.B., Mt. Holyoke College, 1911 B.Th., Union Theological Seminary, 1919	New Testament
DANIEL JEROME FISHER S.B., 1917	Geology

JAMES BYRON FRIAUF A.B., University of Montana, 1918	Physics
ADELBERT ANTON FRIEDRICH A.B., Beloit College, 1917	Political Economy
MONT ROBERTSON GABBERT A.B., Transylvania College, 1915 A.M., *ibid.*, 1916	Philosophy
EVELYN GARFIEL A.B., Barnard College, 1920	Psychology
PHILLIP GODDARD A.B., 1917	Romance
HAROLD CLIFFORD GOLDTHORPE S.B., Utah Agricultural College, 1917	Physiological Chemistry
CARTER LYMAN GOODRICH A.B., Amherst College, 1918	Political Economy
HAROLD FOOTE GOSNELL A.B., University of Rochester, 1918	Political Science
AUBREY CHESTER GRUBB A.B., 1917 A.M., 1919	Chemistry
KATHARINE LUCILE HAGEMAN A.B., Oberlin College, 1919	Philosophy
FRANK RUSSELL HAMBLIN A.B., Bucknell University, 1914 A.M., *ibid.*, 1915	Latin
MARTIN CHARLES EDWARD HANKE S.B., 1918	Chemistry
CAROLYN VICTORIA HARGAN A.B., 1918	Greek
JOSEPH ANTHONY HUMPHREYS A.B., Oberlin College, 1916	Education
WILLIAM POLK JESSE A.B., University of Missouri, 1913 M.E., *ibid.*, 1913	Physics
EDWARD THEODORE JOHNSON S.B., 1917	Physics
CLARIBEL KENDALL A.B., University of Colorado, 1912 A.M., *ibid.*, 1914	Mathematics
ISADORE KEYFITZ B.A., University of Toronto, 1919	Old Testament
JAMES NOEL KEYS A.B., Emporia College, 1916 A.B., University of Oxford, 1918 A.M., *ibid.*, 1920	Education
HELEN LOIS KOCH Ph.B., 1918	Psychology
DARWIN ASHLEY LEAVITT B.A., Beloit College, 1904 M.A., Yale University, 1907 D.B., *ibid.*, 1907	Old Testament
KATHERINE EVA LUDGATE A.B., University of Washington, 1917 S.M., *ibid.*, 1918	Psychology

FREDERICK DEAN MCCLUSKY A.B., Park College, 1917	Education
KATHARINE LUCILLE MCCLUSKY S.B., 1917	Chemistry
CYRUS COLTON MACDUFFEE S.B., Colgate University, 1917	Mathematics
ARTHUR CRANE MCFARLANE A.B., University of Cincinnati, 1919	Geology and Paleontology
ANDREW MERRITT MCMAHON A.B., State University of Iowa, 1916 S.M., *ibid.*, 1917	Physics
DANIEL ALLAN MACPHERSON Ph.B., Brown University, 1920 M.S., *ibid.*, 1920	Hygiene and Bacteriology
FRANK PADEN MCWHORTER S.B., Vanderbilt University, 1918 S.M., 1919	Botany
ELIZABETH WILHELMINA MILLER Ph.B., 1914 A.M., 1915	Household Administration
JOHN PRESTON MINTON S.B., Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1912	Physics
CLARENCE JOHN MONROE S.B., 1917	Chemistry
PAUL GRADY MOORHEAD A.B., University of South Carolina, 1913 A.M., *ibid.*, 1914	Latin
ROBERT SANDERSON MULLIKEN S.B., Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1917	Chemistry
RALPH W. NELSON A.B., Phillips University, 1915 A.M., University of Kansas, 1916 B.D., Yale University, 1918	Sociology
ALBERT WATTS NEWCOMBE A.B., Bowdoin College, 1914 D.B., Newton Theological Institute, 1917	Church History
ALOIS RICHARD NYKL Ph.B., 1918	Romance
RUTH O'BRIEN S.B., University of Nebraska, 1914 A.M., 1915	Chemistry
HARRIET MCWILLIAMS PARSONS A.B., Vassar College, 1915 S.M., 1916	Astronomy
ARTHUR FREDERICK PEINE A.B., Illinois Wesleyan College, 1911 A.M., University of Illinois, 1913	History
DONALD AYRES PIATT Ph.B., 1919	Philosophy
GEORGE RAWLINGS POAGE Ph.B., 1916 A.M., 1918	History
LILLIAN GRACE REYNOLDS S.B., 1919	Botany

WILLIAM V. ROOSA A.B., Drake University, 1915 A.M., 1916	New Testament
GEORGE STEFANUS HAUPTFLEISCH ROSSOUW A.B., University of Good Hope, 1915 A.M., 1918	Sociology
WILLIAM HENRY SASSAMAN A.B., Franklin and Marshall College, 1917	Old Testament
KENOSKE SATO AB., University of Illinois, 1918	Sociology
ALBERT JAMES SAUNDERS A.B., Texas Christan University, 1906 D.B., 1909 A.M., 1913	Religious Education
FRANCIS PARKER SHEPARD A.B., Harvard University, 1919	Geology
PRANIS BALTRAS SIVICKIS A.B., University of Missouri, 1917	Zoölogy
THOMAS VERNOR SMITH A.B., University of Texas, 1915 A.M., *ibid.*, 1916	Philosophy
LOUISE MARIE SPAETH A.B., University of Texas, 1908	Sociology
STEWART DUFFIELD SWAN A.B., Monmouth College, 1912	Chemistry
LEWIS FRANCIS THOMAS S.B., Denison University, 1910 A.M., University of Missouri, 1917	Geography
ALFRED TONNESS Ph.B., 1917	Systematic Theology
RALPH EDMOND WAGER A.B., Syracuse University, 1902 Ped.B., State Normal College, New York, 1904 A.M., Syracuse University, 1905	Education
H. B. WAHLIN AB., Bethany College, 1915 A.M., University of Kansas, 1916	Physics
LOIS WHITNEY S.B., 1914 A.M., 1915	English
CONSTANCE WIENER A.B., Radcliffe College, 1918	Mathematics
MARGARET FITCH WILLCOX A.B., Mount Holyoke College, 1919	Chemistry
HAROLD RIDEOUT WILLOUGHBY A.B., Wesleyan University, 1915 A.M., *ibid.*, 1916	New Testament
JOHN FRANK WRIGHT A.B., Acadia University, 1917	Geology

WINTER QUARTER 1920

End of Quarter

	1920			1917			Gain	Loss
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total		
I. Arts, Literature, and Science:								
1. Graduate Schools—								
Arts, Literature	204	175	379	191	178	369	10	.....
Science	252	83	335	244	61	305	30	.....
Total	456	258	714	435	239	674	40	.....
2. The Colleges—								
Senior	538	432	970	430	361	791	179	.....
Junior	804	530	1,334	631	449	1,080	254	.....
Unclassified	62	51	113	35	62	97	16	.....
Total	1,404	1,013	2,417	1,096	872	1,968	449	.....
Total Arts, Literature, and Science	1,860	1,271	3,131	1,531	1,111	2,642	489	.....
II. Professional Schools:								
1. Divinity School—								
Graduate	96 (5 dup.)	14 (4 dup.)	110	134	12	146	.....	.....
Unclassified	15	9	24	15	6	21	.....	.....
English Theological	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chicago Theological	25	6	31	39	.....	39	.....	.....
Total	136	29	165	188	18	206	.....	41
*2. Courses in Medicine—								
Graduate	74	23	97	80	11	91	.....	.....
*Senior	98	10	108	105	7	112	.....	.....
Junior	2	.....	2	8	.....	8	.....	.....
Unclassified	3	1	4	2	.....	2	.....	.....
Total	177	34	211	195	18	213	.....	2
3. Law School—								
Graduate	143	8	151	137	8	145	.....	.....
*Senior	68	.....	68	63	1	64	.....	.....
Candidates for LL.B.	90	3	93	62	2	64	.....	.....
Unclassified	2	.....	2	2	.....	2	.....	.....
Total	303	11	314	264	11	275	39	.....
4. College of Education	21	193	214	38	320	358	.....	144
5. College of Commerce and Administration	434	125	559	154	56	210	349	.....
Total Professional	1,071	392	1,463	839	423	1,262	201	.....
Total University	2,931	1,663	4,594	2,370	1,534	3,904	690	.....
*Deduct for Duplication	250	38	288	262	19	281	.....	.....
Net totals in Quadrangles	2,681	1,625	4,306	2,108	1,515	3,626	683	.....
University College	292	965	1,257	276	1,047	1,323	.....	.....
Totals in the University	2,973	2,590	5,563	2,384	2,562	4,946	617	.....

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Vol. VI No. 3

THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

(New Series)

JULY 1920

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS
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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

(NEW SERIES)

Continuing THE UNIVERSITY RECORD, Vol. XIII, and "The University Record" as published in THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO MAGAZINE, Vols. I to VI

EDITOR

DAVID ALLAN ROBERTSON

Vol. VI

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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

VOLUME VI JULY 1920 NUMBER 3

A SUPPLEMENT TO THE "UNIVERSITY RECORD"

Members of the University of Chicago faculties, men and women who keep abreast of the latest developments in their respective fields as covered by departmental journals, are frequently required to vote upon matters of educational policy which they have not had an opportunity to study. Indeed, at the present time there is in the United States no publication which covers the field of higher education. Certainly there does not exist a published summary of educational progress such as would be of special interest to the members of the University of Chicago. For the purpose of making easily accessible brief statements of fact with regard to progress in higher education in this country and abroad, as well as for the purpose of acquainting members of the faculties with significant legislation and administrative action within the University, it is now proposed to issue an occasional supplement to the *University Record*. Brief statements of such matters as the use of intelligence tests for admission of students to college, the reorganization of Yale College, the activities of the American Council on Education, the Association of American Universities, the Association of American Colleges, the Association of Collegiate Registrars, the Association of Business Officers of Universities and Colleges—these and other items may legitimately find place in the supplement. Its aim is to serve as a "house organ" for the members of the University of Chicago. The editor of the *Record* will appreciate the co-operation of all members of the faculties in making available for their colleagues information likely to be of importance to those who, in addition to being experts in their own fields of scholarship, must be called upon to determine for the University of Chicago important educational policies.

IS AMERICA RESPONSIBLE?[1]

By DAVID PRESCOTT BARROWS
President of the University of California

I ask you to consider once again the inevadable question, Is America responsible, responsible for the insecurity which envelops the world and gives eloquence to its appeals—responsible for giving or withholding the colossal power of this state from the ordering of the world's confusions and animosities?

Assuredly we may claim that we had naught in provoking the war. We were no party to the precedent intrigues. We owed neither fealty nor treaty obligation to any Ally. Yet the searching of our souls, at last, made us soldiers in this war and shapers of its victory. Has our responsibility ceased?

It is no surprise that now, our armies melted away, our flags encased our sacrifice sealed, the nation recoils from extra-national responsibility. The traditions of the fathers bade us be a separate people. This present generation through youth and maturity has heard few voices, but those warning it from foreign adventure. To the question, What do political societies owe one another beyond a scrupulous respect in leaving each others affairs alone? the voice of authority again and again has replied "Nothing. The whole duty of a statesman is to keep his country's resources intact and his people jealously concerned with their own affairs."

Previous endeavors for foreign peoples have invoked the most respectable opposition; our sacrifices condemned as stupid; our dead deemed to have died as the fool dieth. In 1898 when Colonel Waring fell a victim to yellow fever, contracted in Havana, the *New York Nation* published these bitter words:

> The cleaning of Spanish streets is none of our business. Waring was sent to Cuba on an errand as foolish as most of the expansionist policy. He sacrificed in it a life of great value to the American people, and we may be sure if expansion continues, Waring will not be its last victim. If we knew the things which make for our peace and prosperity, we should regard the life of Waring as of more value to the American people than the whole island of Cuba and all that it contains.

[1] Delivered on the occasion of the One Hundred and Sixteenth Convocation of the University, held in Hutchinson Court, June 15, 1920.

A few years ago the *Springfield Republican* could say to its readers:

> As long as the Mexican people confine themselves to cutting one another's throats, it does not appear why Americans should feel concerned; let them glut themselves until their savage nature is satiated, or until some leader arises with force enough to reduce them to order and submission. Americans ought to be able to stand it if the Mexicans can.

It must be granted that this strictly narrow view of national responsibility is definite and consistent, but it requires a certain hardihood, to maintain it in the face of neighboring misery.

Only the most robust indifference can preserve its restraint when ruin is near complete, and the conscience of the nation grows unquiet when it sees such views erected into a national policy. In the light of all we have thought and felt and done in the last four years can we support such a policy now?

The situation is clearly unprecedented. Despite our American position, this country is a part of Western civilization, bound to Europe by practically the whole of its inheritance, a member, almost despite itself, of the family of Western nations, a participant for twenty months of warfare in the greatest of known ordeals. Alone in the midst of nations that the war wasted and slew, we have more than replenished our power, as we lavishly spent and loaned. Alone among the nations supporting the civilization which we call Christian, we possess vast resource of properties, of trained men, of political stability. Europe, for centuries the center of the globe, the source of the world's exploration and conquest, the seat of that science which has revealed the mysteries of nature and harnessed its forces, the mother of institutions which gave liberty and enlightenment, is exhausted and broken, her blood fevered, her breasts dry. Her peril is unquestionably great. The best to be hoped is only a slow recuperation which will restore her to a secure though diminished rôle. Only a completely provincial spirit, without acquaintance with the world, without imagination to envisage it, can suppose that America can turn her back upon this situation with fame secure and mind at peace.

We have been living the last week in the midst of a powerful and relentless effort to induce us to do this thing. This effort has been in a measure temporarily successful, but those who think they have settled it, have not settled it. They have not settled it because the American people are incapable of an ungenerous and cynical policy, once they understand. Those who have confederated to defeat our sharing responsibility for the political condition of Europe understand this.

They will seek to convince the American people that aid can be given in some charitable but non-political form. Clearly it is not charity that Europe now requires but authority and security under which administration may be reformed and existent resources utilized. Other ways, I repeat, offered in place of our commitment to the use of political power are answers to the call for bread by offerings of stone.

It is the state which needs reshaping and re-establishing in Europe, and the state cannot be reshaped and re-established, except by a concert of political power.

The prospects for American participation are not hopeless but opposed in a combination of diverse interests united to paralyze our hand. I propose to characterize one or two of these, plainly and without apology. Among these confederated elements are, first and frankest of all, those which do not wish the state restored in Europe because they seek the overthrow of the state everywhere. For them the state is not a natural and necessary institution but a sham. They preach that its place can be taken by various forms of industrial or communistic association working on an international scale. The widest extremes of theory and purpose exist in this group, from philosophical anarchists, to those who love not liberty but power, and who seek to gain power by a suppression of freedom, in the most startling and reactionary movement that the modern world has seen. But all of these are united in opposing the political reconstruction of Europe, because the re-establishment there of the state on a representative or republican basis means their defeat and the end of their vast plans of world-aggrandizement through world-revolution.

Another group are those who rejoice to inflame American hostility to Great Britain and the British Empire. Again, this is a singular combination of diverse strains. It includes many who themselves or whose parentage suffered in the past from the mistakes of British policy. It includes many who by reason of different origin are unmindful of the common nature of American and British political and moral conceptions, and of the general agreement of our interests in the world.

We need new knowledge of the English-speaking race and new light on our behavior. The hour is past when century-old passions can be made political capital. War not only finishes old scores, but its blood seals new compacts and new understandings. These become sacred from the trifler and the politician. Let us view the situation as it actually is. It is the British Empire which is today maintaining the stability of Europe and the order of a vast part of the world. Few can

doubt that that empire is in process of a transformation in obedience to the justifiable preferences of the people who compose it. What is essential is that these changes come through orderly arrangement and timely concession, and not through the shock of revolution. To destroy at this moment the fabric of the British Empire is to consign Western Europe to such catastrophe as has wrecked its eastern portion. Sound sense dictates to us a wise support of the British Empire and participation in its mission.

To the urgings of those who would leave the task of world-reconstruction to Great Britain alone there are two objections. The first is that, by British admission, her resources are inadequate. The empire was satiated before the war; today it is over-inflated with responsibility. Great Britain is solvent but without the power to loan. Her navy is intact but her armies could not be reassembled. And where is that youth that was born to carry on her brilliant traditions of governance and enterprise? Alas, it lies buried in Flanders and the valley of the Somme!

The other reason is quite as serious. The war has left America and Great Britain in such a situation that they must be either allies or foes. There must be closer co-operation or inevitable estrangement. We have broken into the predominance of Great Britain upon the sea; our merchant marine is rapidly approximating hers; our navy, as its super-dreadnaughts take the water, becomes, what Great Britain has never tolerated heretofore, an actual rival in sea power. We are contestants in all parts of the world for the great unexploited sources of supplies from which the exhausted resources of the world may be replenished. It is clear that we must choose between a closer understanding with Great Britain or a rivalry which will make us foes. Things cannot stand still. The difficulties in the way are all on our side. Great Britain is conscious of the peril; we are not. Great Britain is willing to concede; we are unwilling to co-operate. She offers us an alliance to guarantee both the world's stability and our common interest. This alliance we are disposed to spurn. Yet the way of safety is in alliance.

I can only barely refer to other elements which have confederated to defeat the prospects of American political action abroad. They include those leaders of party and of Congress who, by the bitterness of a conflict, partly personal and partly constitutional, have been forced into a hostile attitude to the policy of the President. They include those whose interest has been first in maintaining the dignity and position of

Congress in relation with the Executive and who have, with considerable propriety, put the Constitution above the League of Nations. They include also those whom personal bitterness has blinded to the patriotic duties of the hour.

The issue is with the people, yet so complicated, so tactically mismanaged, that an early and definite decision may be impossible. The nation thinks slowly and occupies itself reluctantly with innovations. We have first to free ourselves from certain political traditions which have become fastened upon us and whose influence is deceptive and exaggerated.

Among these is the "revolutionary" tradition, the tradition of the inherent right of a people to rebel. Revolutions differ, some are heroic and justifiable; some are ignoble and wicked. No revolution is right that does not arise out of an intolerable political condition and a hopelessness of legal methods of reform. If there is any phenomenon in society which less warrants uncritical approval it is a political revolution. Yet revolutions belong in that category of things which the American people, highly theoretical but deeply conservative, benevolently regard as appropriate for all other peoples but themselves. We treat them indulgently abroad and suppress them instantly at home. This illogical attitude reflects itself in our foreign policy, committing us prematurely and out of season to revolutionary movements which have scant justification and scant prospect of advancing the political freedom of society.

Another tradition which bars our progress and paralyzes our action is the "liberal" tradition. One hundred years ago British thought was powerfully moved by the writings and activity of a school of which Richard Cobden may be taken as the representative. This thought based the welfare of society upon the fullest play of individual action. It limited the functions of the state to the most meager activities. Against legislative effort to improve the situation of the exploited industrial classes, it interposed the sacred doctrine of laissez faire. Abroad it took for its program the principles of "free trade and no intervention." The doctrine of no intervention was congenial to America and has become fixed in the political thinking of the country.

Liberalism long spent its strength on the continent of Europe. Reaction from its laissez faire tenets produced European socialism. Its program of non-intervention stultified European statesmanship, prevented the liquidation of dangerous conditions, and permitted the war. Liberalism disappeared as a dominant force in British politics

during the war. Incapable of accepting British participation in the European conflict, unwilling to yield its anti-military principles to the need for the draft, British liberalism passed from power. But the ghost of that liberalism continues to prevail here. It is still the fashion of editorial writers and of political leaders to talk in its phrases because no others seem to evoke so general a response, yet these doctrines are clearly inapplicable to the present and inadequate for the future. Liberalism is too closely associated with the sordid interests of life; it ministers too effectively to our indulgence and ease. Liberalism never won a war, never lifted another's burden, never fired a race for victory or for sacrifice.

Four years ago I was admitted for a memorable day into the conversation of one of the greatest of British writers and liberals, Lord John Morley. It was one of the crises of the war; the German attack was unbroken at Verdun; the American note on the Sussex outrage was unanswered; the issue of the war between freedom and autocracy hung in the balance. True to the liberal principles which carried him out of the cabinet at the declaration of war, Lord Morley still insisted that England should not have entered and that the conflict should be settled upon indecisive terms. He said to me:

> My message to America is, do not crusade. Crusades never pay. Europe crusaded once and a lot of men fought to recover the sepulchre of Christ, yet the Holy Land is still in possession of the infidel. [This, I may observe, was some months before the cavalry of Allenby loomed on the sandy horizon of Syria.] I have been optimistic with respect to human nature, but I shall lose hope in the good judgment of mankind if America enters the war.

It was the counsel of liberalism.

There is finally the tradition called "anti-imperialism"—the tradition which is invoked against the assumption of colonial power. This tradition insists that the worst possible condition of a people left to itself is preferable to the best of governments imposed by outside authority. It invokes the sacred principles of "consent of the governed," and of "free determination" to defeat the only prospects of secure and orderly life possessed by numerous lands and peoples. A vast proportion of the world is so little advanced in political experience that it is incapable of maintaining political society at all. Upon these latter people there must rest for the immediate future the authority of an external sovereignty.

For such peoples the Treaty of Versailles has proposed a somewhat new constitution under the title of "mandate." From whatever source

proposed, this conception of a mandate, a trusteeship, is an acknowledgment of the principles upon which America has sought to advance the progress of politically inexperienced peoples. It recognizes the aspiration for independence as a justifiable ideal. We realize that the genius of the successful government of dependencies lies in concession: that the statesman has only two alternatives, concession and repression, and we cannot go back to repression as an instrument of colonial power.

We waged war on Spain to defeat the frank and brutal policy of her great monarchist statesman, Canovas del Castillo, which found its epitome in his phrase on Spanish authority over Cuba: *Es cuestion de bayonetas y nada mas.* "It is a question of bayonets and nothing else." We have never once been allured in relations with weaker states and dependent peoples by the old imperial dictum, "Divide and rule." We have sought to unite and to free.

It is unfortunate for the future of mandates that America should have been asked to assume as her initial responsibility the undefined country of Armenia. The objection lies not alone in its distance from our general interests and experience but also because the territory of the Ottoman Empire is already distributed among too many mandatory powers. To assign another portion to America would seem merely to add one more element of misunderstanding and division. The genius of the mandate plan is that it intrusts a single field to a single trustee. The inextricable assemblage of peoples who make up the former empire of the Turks already have too many trustees.

Unconvinced of its duty by this initial proposal it may be increasingly difficult to interest America in mandates more reasonably conceived, but the institution itself would seem to be the best conception emerging from the council of Versailles and the prospects of peace in the world are closely connected with American willingness to assist in building up free peoples out of their political weakness.

So we return to the question again. In the face of a world so shattered, so largely incapable of independent organization, Is America responsible? After our extraordinary participation in the conflict, can we refuse responsibility for the terms of peace and their observance? Having fought to bear Germany down, to break the artificial structure of the Austrian Empire, can we claim detachment from the work of resuscitation of both conquering and vanquished peoples? With an enormous financial interest in the recovery of Europe, can we, in good sense, refuse a support which may be essential to Europe's solvency? The world is united by the bonds of commerce, of travel, of association,

of instruction. The last continent is explored and the last island possessed. Can we claim detachment from the fortunes of all the varied peoples and races who make up our common family?

The events of the great convention which we witnessed the past week have not settled this question. The political discussions of the coming months, the national expression of will in November may not settle it. It cannot be easily settled nor quickly settled, nor, perhaps, for a long time fully settled, but the American nation in the plenitude of its prosperity, its solidarity, and its capacity is united in its fortune with the fortunes of the world, is joined in its destiny to the destiny of the human race. America has entered upon relations from which there can be no back-turn because those relations are indispensable to the future of the world's liberty, to the harmonious life of nations, to an improved understanding between the races, to the re-establishment of the moral order, and to the triumph of those great ideas which have moved the hearts of men and compelled their sacrifices for more than two thousand years and which alone afford mankind prospects of a better and more generous future.

THE PRESIDENT'S CONVOCATION STATEMENT

THE CONVOCATION ORATOR

This Convocation is signalized in more ways than one as belonging to our alumni. The customary reunions on Alumni Day were very significant in some ways yet to be noted. The brilliant Phi Beta Kappa address on Monday was given by Dr. Edwin E. Slosson, of the *Independent* editorial staff, one of our own Doctors of Philosophy. The University has been favored today by having as its Convocation orator one of its Doctors of Philosophy of 1897, one whose long record of distinguished service to education, to science, and to the nation has been crowned by his recent election to the presidency of the University of California. Before that action of the Regents of the University of California was taken it was the distinct desire of the University of Chicago that Dr. Barrows return to his Alma Mater here as head of an important department. The wise action of the California Regents, in no other way regrettable, made it impossible for the University of Chicago to claim its son, but his address today is only another evidence that he is still our own.

ALUMNI

The Alumni Council has been active and successful during the past year. The number of alumni clubs throughout the country has increased under the wise policy of the Council from five to thirty-one. A large beginning has been made toward the subscription of an adequate fund to carry on alumni activities on an independent basis. Many of our alumni have already reached middle life and are doing important parts of the world's work. Merely as typical of this I note that last winter the orator of today was elected as President of the University of California, and that yesterday another of our valued alumni, Dr. Wallace W. Atwood, who took his Bachelor's degree in 1897 and his Doctor's degree in the Department of Geology in 1903, was elected to the presidency of Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts, in place of Dr. G. Stanley Hall, resigned.

ATTENDANCE OF STUDENTS

The number of students registered during the current quarter has been 5,179 as against 3,361 for the same period last year, and 4,320 in the Spring Quarter of 1917. The total number of students registered during the entire year closing June 30, 1920, is approximately 10,400.

RECENT GIFTS TO THE UNIVERSITY

There have been several interesting gifts during the current quarter.

Mr. Roy D. Keehn, one of our alumni, renews his gift of $200 for a fellowship in the Law School for 1920–21.

From the estate of the late Harriet B. Morse, the University has received the sum of $3,000, to create the Herbert A. and Harriet E. Morse Fund, the income of which is for the aid of students.

Mrs. Helen Swift Neilson, of Chicago, has contributed $25,000 to establish an American Book Purchase Fund.

Professor James H. Breasted, of the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures, is on leave of absence in the Near East. In addition to previous purchases he has found extraordinary opportunities for enriching Haskell Oriental Museum from objects in Egypt and Mesopotamia. It is highly desirable to obtain a fund of $50,000 for this purpose. Toward this fund Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., has given $25,000. The remaining $25,000 is asked from those who may be interested in the University and especially in the oriental field of its scientific activities.

OUR PLANS IN PROGRESS

The plans for the Albert Merritt Billings Hospital are in active process of completion and will be ready to submit to contractors some time in the winter of 1920–21. The architect is proceeding with plans for the new chapel which are assuming a very interesting shape but will hardly be ready for soliciting bids until late in the coming autumn or early in the winter. The plans for the Theology Building are completed and are ready to obtain bids as soon as building conditions become tolerable. So it may be said of the plans for the new Quadrangle Club Building.

These four projects, therefore, are all in such a condition that if it is at all possible to build they will proceed in the early future to completion, and it is unnecessary here to say how large a part these buildings will play in the life of the University.

The University having resumed its normal life after the interruption caused by the war it now becomes possible once more to look

into the future. This, it may be said, has been the habitual attitude of the University of Chicago from the beginning. War, however, centers every energy on the immediate present. This by the way is notably true in a republic which has had a war for every generation but is so sure that it will never have another one that it has always stubbornly neglected to be prepared. The University, however, cannot be content with a policy of drift, but must take a long look ahead. Accordingly the Board of Trustees at the last meeting adopted a five-year program covering what seem to be the vital things for the immediate future. These plans I take up in their order.

I. SALARIES FOR THE PRESENT STAFF

In September, 1919, the Board appropriated the income of $2,000,000 endowment toward increasing the salaries of members of the Faculties. This was income which had been held in reserve for the innumerable necessities for which a budget forecast is impracticable, but which, nevertheless, experience shows always to be inevitable. For many years now the University has had no deficit and there will be none this year. Still it is clear that the $2,000,000 thus used for budget salary appropriations should be replaced in the general endowment.

The beginning made in this matter for the present budget must be continued by a further advance in the budget for 1920–21. Having secured reasonable assurance of adequate income for two years to come and with confident expectation of capitalizing the amount by the end of that period, the Board has voted for the year beginning July 1, 1920, the income of $2,000,000 more for adding to the salaries of members of the present Faculties. This involves also a readjustment of the existing scale, so that the maximum which may be reached by a professor in the Faculties of Arts, Literature, and Science, and in Education, it is believed, will be equal to that provided in any American university.

The University therefore needs to add to its endowment, to provide for salary increases already made or authorized, the sum of $4,000,000.

II. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOLS

For many reasons it has not seemed expedient for the University to organize an undergraduate school of technology. But our strong departments of pure science can render a great service to applied science by research, for it is the discoveries in the laboratories which make possible the new forms of the mastery of man over the forces of nature;

by training students to be experts in investigation and in the application of sciences to the industries—these industries must have trained minds as well as trained hands for their progress; by aiding to solve the problems in science which the industries have to face. The only way to insure such functions of the Graduate School is to obtain funds designated as for the Graduate work only, thus being preserved from drawing off for the imperative needs of other branches of the University.

To attain this end the Board has authorized the formation of certain institutes within the Graduate School, these institutes being devoted to conducting such research and such training in pure science as has an immediate bearing on the application of the sciences to the industries; and it is intended to secure funds for the suitable endowment and equipment of the institutes.

1. The first authorized is the institute of *Physics and Chemistry.* For this there will be needed a building which with its equipment should cost approximately $450,000, and an endowment which at the outset should be $1,000,000.

2. Another institute will be that of *Plant Agriculture,* which will need at the beginning $100,000 for equipment and $700,000 for endowment. The purpose of this institute will be, in the first place, advancement of the fundamental science of agriculture so far as plant production and protection are concerned. In this field many important fundamental problems are as yet almost entirely untouched and they can best be solved only in such a research institute as the University has in mind. Also the institute will train men in the fundamental science of agriculture for positions in agricultural colleges, agricultural experiment stations, and the like. Such advanced work in these fields does not exist in any adequate way and will be cordially welcomed by those interested in the science of agriculture and in agricultural education.

3. A third institute is that of *Mining,* in which the Department of Geology will take the lead, reinforced by the Departments of Physics, Chemistry, and Geography. The new work will be of the same advanced nature as in the other institutes, being by no means intended to duplicate the excellent undergraduate courses in existing schools of mining engineering. This institute can use existing buildings but should have an endowment of $300,000.

4. A fourth institute will be that of the *Science of Education.* The primary purposes of the institute will be the training of supervisors, the conduct of research in the science of education and the training of students in such research. It is not intended to have an unwieldy body

of students, but a limited number of selected persons who can do effectively the most advanced work.

In order to accomplish these purposes there should be a new endowment of $1,000,000, and provision should be made at an early date for the three buildings which the School of Education yet lacks for its completion—a building for the graduate department, a building for the secondary school, and a gymnasium. Perhaps $700,000 should provide for these buildings.

SUMMARY

I. Endowment needed:

The new endowments called for by the foregoing plan amount to a total of $7,000,000 as follows: (1) increase of salaries, $4,000,000; (2) the Graduate School, Institutes of (*a*) Physics and Chemistry, $1,000,000, (*b*) Plant Agriculture, $700,000, (*c*) Science of Education, $100,000.

II. Buildings needed:

To carry out the foregoing new plan a building fund of approximately $1,250,000 is desired as follows: (1) Physics and Chemistry, $450,000; (2) Plant Agriculture, $100,000; (3) Science of Education, $700,000.

III. Buildings needed for the new plan:

To carry out the new plans for the Graduate Schools will call for buildings, as has been stated, the aggregate cost of which will amount to at east $1,250,000.

IV. Buildings needed for existing departments:

The University Library is already filled to repletion and needs two buildings, one on the east and one on the west of the Harper Memorial.

The Administration of the University is inconveniently housed in many places, and at an early date a commodious and dignified Administration Building should be erected.

The housing question is a serious one, and there is a pressing demand for dormitories on a large scale. The Board of Trustees has directed its Committee on Buildings and Grounds to secure plans for dormitories, or, to use the better form, the University residence houses for women, to be erected on the northern half of the block containing Ida Noyes Hall. Corresponding halls for men should go on the blocks west of Cobb Hall.

Further, funds for buildings should be accompanied by further endowment funds to provide for their care, as otherwise they immediately

drain away endowment income which should be used for instruction and research.

What these buildings may cost it is difficult at this time of business uncertainty to estimate. It will not be a small sum, but as soon as it is possible to proceed with building plans an adequate amount should be available.

V. Total new funds needed, $10,000,000:

The new plans which I have mentioned call for additional endowment amounting to $7,000,000, and for buildings whose cost is estimated at $1,250,000, a total of $8,250,000.

The other building projects above noted, whose cost has not been estimated, will easily bring the amount which the University needs up to $10,000,000. It is this sum which the Board of Trustees proposes to have secured within a period of five years, and the University confidently expects that the fund will be obtained.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

By J. SPENCER DICKERSON, *Secretary*

APPOINTMENTS

In addition to reappointments the following appointments to the faculties have been made by the Board of Trustees:

J. Fred Rippy, Instructor in the Department of History, from October 1, 1920.

Mildred Hart, Instructor in the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures, from October 1, 1920.

Mary King MacDonald, Associate in the Department of English, from October 1, 1920.

Mrs. Zoe Fiske Flanagan, Associate in the Department of English, from October 1, 1920.

Mrs. Myrtle C. Geyer, Associate in the Department of English, from October 1, 1920.

Marion F. Lanphier, Associate in the Department of English, from October 1, 1920.

James Henry Roberts, Associate in the Department of English, from October 1, 1920.

Edward Ayers Taylor, Associate in the Department of English, from October 1, 1920.

Anna P. Cooper, Associate in the Department of English, from October 1, 1920.

Ernest Bloomfield Zeisler, Associate in the Department of Mathematics, from October 1, 1902.

Mrs. Mayme I. Logsdon, Associate in the Department of Mathematics, from October 1, 1920.

Paul MacClintock, Instructor in the Department of Geology, from October 1, 1920.

J. M. Retinger, Assistant Professor in the Department of Physiological Chemistry, from April 1, 1920.

Edward A. Duddy, Instructor in the School of Commerce and Administration, from July 1, 1920.

Albert S. Keister, Lecturer in the School of Commerce and Administration, from October 1, 1920.

Jay F. Christ, Instructor in the School of Commerce and Administration, from October 1, 1920.

Curtis N. Hitchcock, Instructor in the School of Commerce and Administration, from October 1, 1920.

Florence Richardson, Assistant Professor in the School of Commerce and Administration, from October 1, 1920.

Robert E. Taylor, Instructor in the School of Commerce and Administration, from October 1, 1920.

Carl Frederick Taeusch, Instructor in the Department of Philosophy, from October 1, 1920.

Dr. Ralph B. Seem, of Johns Hopkins University, Director-elect of the Albert Merritt Billings Hospital, begins his service with the University July 1, 1920.

RESIGNATIONS

The Board of Trustees has accepted the resignations of the following members of the faculties:

James Rowland Angell, Professor and Head of the Department of Psychology, to take effect June 30, 1920. He becomes President of the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

Thomas A. Knott, Assistant Professor in the Department of English, to take effect September 30, 1920. He accepts a professorship in Iowa State University.

LEAVES OF ABSENCE

Leaves of absence have been granted to:

Frederick D. Bramhall, of the Department of Political Science, for the current year to June 30, 1920, on account of illness.

Professor Ernest D. Burton, of the Department of New Testament and Early Christian Literature, for five months from September 1, 1920, to act as chairman of a commission on Christian Education in China.

Professor James H. Tufts, of the Department of Philosophy, from January 1, 1921, to June 30, 1921, in order that he may accept an invitation temporarily to teach in Columbia University.

GIFTS

The President of the University announced to the Board a gift of an additional $25,000 from Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., provided an equal amount is secured from other donors, for the purposes of the Oriental Institute and the purchase of material in the Near East by

Professor J. H. Breasted, now in Mesopotamia. He further reported that he confidently expected to secure other gifts for this purpose amounting to $25,000.

Mrs. Helen Swift Neilson, of Chicago, has contributed $25,000 to the University's American Book Purchase Fund.

From the estate of Harriet E. Morse the University has received the sum of $3,000, to create the Herbert A. and Harriet E. Morse Fund, "to be applied to the education of worthy and needy persons desiring to attend or attending said University."

INSURANCE OF EMPLOYEES AND MEMBERS OF THE TEACHING STAFF

At the meeting of the Board of Trustees held March 9, 1920, authority was given to the Business Manager to effect the insurance of employees of the University and certain members of the teaching staff not eligible to the benefits of the retiring allowance now in force. This insurance is effective after one year of continuous service, the minimum amount of insurance being $600, and increasing at the rate of $100 per annum up to the amount of the annual salary of the individual, but not to exceed a maximum of $3,000. It is hoped that the interest of the University thus manifested will not only afford protection to the families of its employees, but will also arouse a spirit of loyalty and co-operation.

MR. ROCKEFELLER'S FINAL GIFT

The University has received the tenth and last instalment of Mr. John D. Rockefeller's "final gift" made in December, 1910, and payable in annual instalments of $1,000,000. In noting the receipt of the last portion of this notable contribution to the funds of the University, the Board of Trustees instructed the President and the Secretary to address to Mr. Rockefeller a communication on behalf of the Board of Trustees expressing the deep feeling of gratitude and the hearty thanks of the University for his crowning munificent gift and its sense of appreciation of the beneficent ends secured by means of its use.

INCREASE IN TUITION FEES AND ROOM RENTS

The Board of Trustees has voted to increase tuition fees from and after the Summer Quarter, 1920, as follows:

Graduate tuition	from $40 to $50
College tuition	from 50 to 60
School of Commerce and Administration tuition, including material fees	from 50 to 70
Medical Courses tuition including laboratory fees	from 60 to 75
Divinity School tuition	from 40 to 50
Law School tuition	from 50 to 65

In the School of Education tuition fees have been increased: in the Kindergarten from $75 to $100 for the year; in the Elementary School from $135 in the first four grades and $150 in the remaining grades to $200 in all grades for the year; in the High School from $200 to $275 for the year. There are, however, to be no additional fees in these schools except for breakage in the laboratories and material for construction in the shops. Provision is made for free textbooks for pupils in the schools; for continuance of tuition fees of members of the University faculty at the present rates, namely, at one-half the present tuition fee plus the additional fees taken over for pupils by the increase in tuition, it being understood that all of the changes herein named are to become effective beginning with the year July 1, 1920—June 30, 1921.

The fees in University College, on and after October 1, 1920, are to be placed on the same basis as the fees in the Colleges of Arts, Literature, and Science.

The charges for room rents in the student residence halls have been increased with the beginning of the Summer Quarter, sufficiently to meet the increased cost of maintenance and operation.

SALES FROM UNIVERSITY COMMONS STOREHOUSE

The University Commons will issue to members of the faculties, officers, and employees of the University, identification tickets giving the holders the privilege of purchasing from the Commons Store Room, on conditions named below, the following goods on a strictly cash and carry basis: (1) dry groceries—flour, sugar, coffee, cocoa; (2) butter; (3) eggs; (4) bottled olives; (5) canned goods—vegetables, fruit, fish.

Beginning July 1, Room 14, Lexington Hall, will be open daily, except Saturday, from three to five o'clock.

Identification tickets will be issued to those entitled to make purchases. These tickets will be taken up and canceled if used by or for anyone other than the person whose name is written thereon. The Commons may discontinue these sales at any time and may change the list of goods obtainable.

"HISTORY OF BELGIUM"

A morocco-bound copy of the second edition of Professor Léon Van der Essen's *History of Belgium*, published by the University of Chicago Press, was forwarded through the American Ambassador to Belgium

to King Albert. The receipt of the volume was acknowledged by Mr. Whitlock in the following letter:

AMERICAN EMBASSY, BRUSSELS
May 1, 1920

MY DEAR PRESIDENT JUDSON:

I received on April 13th last your letter dated March 26, and immediately sent the copy of Professor Van der Essen's *History of Belgium* to the Secretary of the King.

I have now received an acknowledgment from Colonel Menschaert in which he asks me to forward to you the sincere thanks of His Majesty for your thoughtfulness in sending the work to him. Thinking that it may be of interest to you, I am enclosing a copy of Colonel Menschaert's letter.

Believe me, my dear President Judson,

Very sincerely yours,

(SIGNED) BRAND WHITLOCK

PALAIS DE BRUXELLES
Le 23 avril, 1920

Monsieur l'Ambassadeur:

En l'absence de M.le Chef du Cabinet du Roi, j'ai eu l'honneur de remettre à Sa Majesté le volume *Histoire de Belgique* par le Professeur Van der Essen que le President de l'Université de Chicago, M. Harry Pratt Judson, avait prié Votre Excellence d'offrir à mon Auguste Souverain.

J'ai été chargé d'avoir l'honneur de recourir à la grande et habituelle obligeance de Votre Excellence en la priant de vouloir bien faire parvenir à M. Pratt Judson les sincères remerciements du Roi pour la gracieuse pensée qu'il a eue de cette œuvre.

Veuillez agréer, Monsieur l'Ambassadeur, les assurances de ma plus haute considération.

Le Colonel Secrétaire du Cabinet du Roi.

(S) A. MENSCHAERT

A SON EXCELLENCE
MONSIEUR BRAND WHITLOCK
AMBASSADEUR EXTRAORDINAIRE ET PLENIPOTENTIAIRE
DES ETATS-UNIS DE L'AMERIQUE DU NORD BRUXELLES

MISCELLANEOUS

The Board of Trustees has authorized the employment of a visiting nurse to be under the direction of the University Health Department.

Marshall & Fox have been appointed architects of the Rawson Laboratory of the Medical School. It is to be erected on the West Side.

The architect's plans for the Albert Merritt Billings Hospital and Max Epstein Dispensary have been accepted.

Repairs and alterations in the Divinity dormitories together with their refurnishing have been authorized at an expense of $54,009.

During the month of February, 1920, (twenty-nine days) the power plant burned 2,497 tons of coal, an average of 86.3 tons per day.

By authority of the Board the buildings at 5817 and 5831 Kenwood Avenue, one of them formerly used as a fraternity house and purchased in 1918 by the University, have been altered and repaired and are to be used as residence halls for women. They are to be known as Kenwood House.

The plan for the advance financial campaign for endowment and building funds for the University as adopted by the Board of Trustees is fully described in the quarterly statement of the President of the University made at the Convocation on June 15.

UNITING THE UNITED STATES[1]

By EDWIN E. SLOSSON
Ph.D., University of Chicago, 1902

The United States and the Phi Beta Kappa are twins. They were born the same year, the first year of freedom, 1776. They had the same Alma Mater, the College of William and Mary. This was where the Phi Beta Kappa originated and this was where Thomas Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence, was educated.

What is more important than coincidence of origin is that the United States and the Phi Beta Kappa have grown up together and stuck together for the one hundred and forty-four years of their common life. The little brother has supported the big brother through thick and thin. The annual Phi Beta Kappa orations form a continuous encyclopedia of Americanism from the beginning to the present. It has fallen to my lot to continue the tradition, but it is unnecessary as well as unbecoming to introduce any new doctrine of my own, so I shall use this opportunity merely to recall to mind the process by which the United States became united and to show what is the spirit of Americanism as it is revealed in our history, traditions, and social life.

In 1782 the mother-society, Alpha of Virginia, stretched out her hand to New England and gave the grip to Yale and Harvard. This was a more radical step than to extend the society now to Oxford. It was Samuel Hardy who first proposed to make the Phi Beta Kappa a national society and we know his motive. Edward Everett, writing in 1831, says of his proposal: "He expatiated on the great advantages that would attend the binding together of the several states." His object then was Americanization, the uniting of the United States. For when the founders of our Republic called this "the United States" they did not tell the truth. Here were thirteen distinct, antagonistic, and suspicious colonies, as quarrelsome as an *entente cordiale*. None knew better how far from united they were than those who first called them so. It was a prophetic fiction, and this is the way we usually make political as well as moral progress. By pretending that we already are what we wish to be we are most likely so to become.

[1] Phi Beta Kappa address at the University of Chicago, June 14, 1920.

All the wise men that gathered about the cradle of infant America said that the child would never grow up; that its heredity was unfortunate; that its constitution was bad; that democracy was impossible on a large scale; that mixture of races meant ruin.

But now, three hundred years since the Constitution of the first American commonwealth was drafted in the cabin of the "Mayflower," it is the most thriving and promising of nations. It is the only really comfortable country in the world. It is an island of the blest in a universal ocean of misery. It is the place where property is safest; where the financial system is most stable; where the standard of living is highest; where individual opportunities are greatest; where the comforts, conveniences, and luxuries are most accessible; where the most races live in the greatest harmony; where there is least friction between classes; where religions are most numerous and bigotry least; where most money and effort are spent on education; where the per capita wealth is the greatest and most widely distributed; where the foreign indebtedness is least; where government is most permanent and revolution least to be feared. These are not boasts but plain figures. We have no right to boast about them, (1) because we might do so much better, (2) because our exceptionally high relative position is due largely to the misfortunes that have fallen more heavily upon the rest of the world.

Our unique position is not merely a matter of congratulation; it is a warning. If we were so selfish as to wish to keep our fortunate superiority for ourselves we could not do so. Our job of Americanization is not confined to the limits of the country. We must make the world safe for democracy, for our kind of democracy, our American ideals and standard of life. The Bolsheviki are accused of aiming to convert the world to their doctrines. We cannot blame them for that. Our object is to convert the world to our doctrines. Every Fourth of July oration is gospel message to the entire planet. We must bring all other nations up to our level or we shall sink to theirs. I mean merely our level in regard to that particular group of ideals and practices that we call "Americanism." Every foreign nation has something to teach us which we ought to learn. Every immigrant race has brought to us some valuable factor of our national life. But Americanism is our message, our unique contribution to the civilization of the world. We must be its evangelists in every land to the ends of the earth and unto the islands of the sea.

The war has put a new course in every curriculum, Americanism. The demand of the day is that we shall consciously teach what we have

unconsciously become. Scores of agencies have sprung up for the teaching of Americanism. Money is pouring out lavishly for the cause. Zealous and devoted men and women, old and young, have responded to the call for volunteers and are training themselves for this new form of national service. There is no cause more worthy, none more needed. It is because the peoples of the Old World had not learned the lesson of Americanism that the Greatest War came upon them and it is because they will not learn it now that the Great Peace is still delayed.

America has a message. It is a message of peace and good will to all men. It is meet that we say it over to ourselves, that we may not forget it in the turmoil of antagonistic voices and the despair engendered by distress. Faith is what we need, faith in God and country, faith in our institutions and ourselves. We must study our history and learn what has made our nation strong and unified. Our name is our ideal, the United States. Our duty is to justify the prophetic title that the founders of the Republic dared to call it. We must manage to convey its meaning to the aliens who come to us with alien ideas hard to eradicate, with outlandish traditions incompatible with ours. We must inspire them and their children and our children as well with the true spirit of Americanism.

What is that spirit? It is most succinctly expressed in our national motto. Every American, however poor, carries in his pocket a government medal of silver or nickel with this inscription, *E pluribus unum*, "Of many, making one," or to put it in other words it means, "the unification of diversity." Note that it does not mean "the obliteration of diversity." It means many minds, one heart; many roads, one goal; many ways, one purpose; many races, one nation. The American revolutionists, like the French, believed in the political trinity of liberty, equality, fraternity. But their creed should not be misread as liberty, uniformity, fraternity. Quite the contrary, they were bent on sweeping away the artificial and traditional inequalities of men that all might be born free and have an equal chance to develop their diverse abilities in fraternal unity. The best textbook of Americanism is still the Declaration of Independence, and we might well revive the obsolete custom of reading it once a year. Some of our new teachers of Americanism do not seem to be familiar with its Magna Charta. Our task is to train into good Americans not only the million aliens who come from over-sea but also the three million infant aliens who arrive in this country annually.

The "melting pot" metaphor is sometimes misconstrued through inattention to its grammatical form. The participle is in the present

tense. A "melting pot" means a pot that is kept melting—that is to say, in a fluid condition so that each individual particle may find its proper level according to its own specific gravity, the scum to be skimmed off and the dregs to be discarded. It does not mean that sometime the contents of the pot are to be poured out to be set in a rigid mold, like the cast nations of the Old World. If America ever cools off and solidifies, that is the death of Americanism. We Americans do not believe that people should be pressed into the same mold, machined to the same pattern. It was to escape such a process that many of us or our ancestors came to America.

America was populated by the persecuted. Puritans from England, Huguenots from France, Germans from the Rhine, Catholics from Ireland, Czecho-Slovaks from Austria-Hungary, Armenians from Turkey, Jews from Russia—these are but a few of those who fled to America for freedom from the religious, economic, racial, or military oppression at home. All these were protestants and nonconformists in the original sense of these words, whether they were Catholics or Congregationalists. They were a chosen people—chosen to be kicked out from their native lands. Whether our fathers came over in the "Mayflower" along with a shipload of furniture and pewter ware or whether they came over later in the more comfortable accommodations of a steamer steerage, it was mostly because they were considered undesirable citizens that they were forced or permitted to depart.

America is a chosen land—selected out of all parts of the world as their future home by those who desired or were obliged to leave their native countries. This is an honor that we should appreciate and endeavor to deserve. The United States is a synthetic nation. Other countries "just growed," like Topsy. Ours is the conscious and considered creation of its people. European and Asiatic countries are almost entirely populated by those who were born there and did not have energy enough to get away. Our population is largely composed of those who were not born here and had energy enough to come. What is called patriotism is sometimes not love of country but mere laziness. Our patriotism is less alloyed with this element than any other, for a large proportion of Americans love America because they have lived elsewhere. They came here because they thought they would find it best; they stay here because they have found it best. Americanism is an elective course.

Our form of government is no hand-me-down from a former generation, no misfit borrowed from another land. It is made to measure

and is remade to fit. Our social system is more of a skin than a coat. It grows with us. Every man his own tailor is the law of democracy. The king of France said, "I am the state." It was a lie and they cut off his head for it. The American citizen says, "I am the state," and it is the literal truth. All men are monarchs. This develops a sense of responsibility. In other lands the people can complain, "Why don't *they* do it?" In America we can only wonder, "Why don't we do it?"

Consequently the first lesson to be taught to an immigrant is that patriotism in the American sense is a different thing from Old World patriotism. Americanism does not mean loyalty to a king; it does not mean attachment to a particular spot of ground; it does not mean conformity to a fixed code of customs; it does not mean the perpetuation of traditional institutions; it does not mean the aversion to novel and foreign ideas; it does not mean hostility toward those who differ from us.

Americanism is one of the fine arts, the finest of all the fine arts, the art of getting along peaceably with all sorts and conditions of men. We Americans have had more experience in the practice of this art than other nations, and it is not undue boasting to say that we have acquired a certain proficiency in it. A steel mill may contain twenty different nationalities and they do not quarrel any more than so many Irishmen or Poles in their native land. A city block is a map of Europe in miniature. The immigrants try to keep up their traditional antipathies, but there are few Old World feuds that, if let alone, can resist the solvent atmosphere of America. Their children when they go to school call each other names and stretch their little necks trying to look down on one another. And when they grow up they go into partnership or intermarry. So scrapping and bargaining, quarreling and flirting, studying together and working together, they learn to know each other and become good Americans together, a happy family of wops, kikes, micks, dagoes, sheenies, Polacks, Dutchies, chinks, squareheads, niggers, greasers, Yanks, crackers, hunkies, Heines, guinies, Japs, Canucks, spigotties, and frogs. "Saxon, Norman, and Dane are we" sang the poet laureate in his ode to Alexandra. But our composite ancestry could not be put into any verse except free verse. Roosevelt was able to address an audience of almost any nationality as kinsmen. He differed from the rest of us more in knowledge of genealogy than in diversity of ancestry.

The greater the number of diverse races entering the United States the greater has become the unity of the country. "That blood is

thicker than water" is a trite saying. Perhaps it is true. But we know and have proved that there is something thicker than blood; that is printer's ink. Consanguinity is a weaker bond of union than community of thought and congeniality of spirit. Those who read the same journals are thinking the same thoughts. Those who think together will act together. A magazine with a million circulation is a better bond of unity than the Constitution. Paper proves stronger than parchment whenever it comes to a tug between the two.

In the light of our history and our social system we can define the distinguishing characteristics of Americanism and its opposite:

Americanism	Anti-Americanism
Cosmopolitanism	Exclusiveness
Catholicity	Intolerance
Eclecticism	Compulsory uniformity
Mobility	Solidification

The true American then is fond of travel and accustomed to associate with men of various nationalities; he not only tolerates views other than his own but is anxious to hear them, and he selects from the ideas that come from far or near those that seem to him sensible and worth trying. He is always eager to tell or to hear some new thing, but it is the practical inquisitiveness of the Yankee, not the idle curiosity of the Athenian.

The spirit of Americanism is not confined to any particular race, language, land, creed, or form of government. Although "made in America" it is not patented. It may be exported. In fact it has been carried to the Old World by millions of missionaries, the immigrants who, having lived among us for a few years and imbibed something of the genius of the place, have returned to their native lands and implanted there certain of these New World notions. The traveler in Europe and Asia may happen anywhere upon Americanized individuals, Americanized homes, even Americanized towns. This reflex action of emigration is too often overlooked.

In politics the American spirit finds expression in our unique combination of diversity in unity, the federal system. Each of our forty-eight states is a political experiment station whose new varieties of legislation can be tried out on a small scale and if successful adopted elsewhere. Where voluntary diversification is not permitted progress is impossible. An effort is now being made, though not with the advice and consent of the Senate, to extend something of our federal system to the world as a whole in the form of a League of Nations, but the

world does not seem ripe for it yet. The anti-American spirit dominates Europe and controls the making of the map. The allied powers, freed from American influence by the withdrawal of our representatives from Paris, are trying to herd the human race into separate corrals, with barbed-wire fences around each petty people, to draw boundary lines around those who claim the same ancestry, speak the same language, and profess the same creed. They aim to secure an artificial unity by means of a compulsory uniformity. If they succeed they will restore the crazy-quilt map of the Middle Ages before the world had been bound together by rails and telegraph wires. All Europe seems mad with the mania of xenophobia. A dozen new nationalities have arisen, each nation gathering her skirts about her to avoid contact with her neighbors. It is political sectarianism carried to the extreme. The smaller the country the more intense the nationalism. The new boundary lines of Europe and Asia are being drawn in the spirit of hate.

The American ideal is the opposite of this. Our guiding spirit is love, not hate. We would lay the foundations of a new state in hope, not fear. Holding that all men are equal we are willing to call them all brothers. Our kind of nationalism is not exclusive. Our ideal of patriotism is not national selfishness; it is universal commonwealth.

But all Americans are not yet Americanized, and it may be that the flood of reaction now sweeping over the world may even carry our own country away with it. The peace of Europe is being held back while Italians and Jugo-Slavs are quarreling over the pronunciation of an Adriatic town, whether it should be called "Fiume" or "Rieka." The point in dispute has narrowed to a strip of territory, barely twenty miles wide, between the boundary line now proposed by the supreme council and that drawn by President Wilson. This strip contains forty thousand Slovenes and Croats who may not wish to be transferred to Italy. By a curious coincidence forty thousand was the number of Slovenes and Croats coming to the United States in a year before the war. There are ten times as many Italians in New York City as there are in Fiume and they make themselves quite at home. Yet European statesmen waste their time over the childish puzzle of dissected maps, because they have not discovered that men are not like mountains, but can move. They say that the Balkan and Baltic peoples are ineradicably attached to the soil. We in America know, on the contrary, that there are no people more ready to move. If we consider the folks and not the land, as we should, we may say that one-third of Slovakia, one-fourth of Dalmatia, one-tenth of Greece, and one-fourth of Poland had voluntarily

annexed itself to the United States before the war. The rest might have come if they could have raised twenty-five dollars apiece to pay for their passage. A few thousand dollars invested in steamer and railroad tickets for free distribution would have solved many of the problems which brought the world into the war. If it is a question of territory, that can be adjusted on the map. If it is a question of the people, they will settle it for themselves if allowed to go where they like.

Man is a natural migrant. He can be made to stay in one place only by close confinement under a life-sentence at hard labor. As soon as you release him he runs away. Run a railroad into any part of the world where the people have been bound to the soil for centuries, say the interior of China, India, or Africa, and every train will be overpacked with natives moving to and fro. Americans have been ridiculed and condemned because when they get rich and gain leisure they straightway become restless and roam about the world. But this migratory impulse is not an American failing but a normal human instinct that almost all men and an equal number of women display as soon as they are able to indulge in it. In the halcyon days before the war a class at the opposite end of the social scale from the millionaire, that is the common laborer, was freed from sedentary serfdom and he too became a seasonal migrant like the bird. Only the unfortunate middleman, who, chained to his plow or desk, had to have a home, was left to peruse the literature of tourism with longing eyes. The Finnish miner divided his time between the two hemispheres, spending part of the year in Europe and part in Pennsylvania or Wyoming. Our hundred thousand Italians lived under three flags: Argentinian, American, and Italian. During the five years ending with 1913 the average annual immigration into Argentina was 274,389. The remigration was 118,058. For the United States the immigration was 1,221,680 and the remigration was 516,649. That is, the net gain for both the United States and Argentina was about 57 per cent of the total entrants. In 1912 the United Kingdom lost 701,691 persons and gained 372,618, while the British colonies and dominions overseas gained 1,400,551 and lost 537,550. The flux and reflux of this liquid labor tended like the movement of capital to stabilize conditions all over the world and contributed to the greater happiness and prosperity of increasing numbers.

Whenever or if ever the world settles down again to peace and friendly intercourse this multitudinous migration will become more extensive than ever. Mankind will then enter for a second time into the

nomadic stage, having passed some tedious centuries in attendance upon rooted vegetation. Mobility distinguishes the higher forms of creation from the lower. Minerals are inert. Plants are stationary. Animals are free. Man, having been endowed with legs instead of roots, should use them. He has now learned how to move swiftly in all three dimensions and has already carried his thoughts into dreams of a fourth.

It is said that an American is at home wherever he hangs up his hat. That is true even when he hangs his hat on his own head. He is a true cosmopolite. That does not mean that he loves all places equally. Quite the contrary, it is because he does not love all places equally that he moves about. This mobility though an American characteristic is not an American invention. We cannot get it patented, for it is merely a common, perhaps universal, human instinct that under American conditions it has had a favorable chance to develop.

However objectionable the hyphen may be we should remember that it indicates a process of welding, not a process of separation. It is the first step in the uniting of two nationalities. It points toward the future, not toward the past. The hyphenated American is simply an American in the making. Anglo-Saxon is no longer considered a compound word. An uncomplimentary member of Parliament recently alluded to Americans as "a bastard race." But we glory in our multiple ancestry. We believe that every man has the right to choose his country. We have abolished hereditary nationality as we have abolished hereditary privilege. The European and even more the Asiatic idea was that a man's country was his fatherland, his patria, and that he could no more change it than he could renounce his parentage. The Yankee notion was that when a man came to maturity he had a right to choose a country as he chose a wife and even, in case of permanent incompatibility of temper, to get a divorce. This free right of nationalization, which seems to us so natural that we call it "naturalization," was a strange and heretical notion when we asserted it. European powers long refused to concede it. We quarreled with them all through the nineteenth century over this question and several times showed fight. Germany and Russia held out against us to the last, but now our battle is won and probably nobody henceforth will dare dispute us when we assert that an adopted son of Uncle Sam is to be treated with as much respect as one of his own children. And having won the battle for our own citizens we have won it for the world. That is the way we can tell true Americanism from false. If the principle we are fighting for can be applied

to the whole world then it is truly American. The Kantian criterion applies to politics as well as ethics. When we won the Revolutionary War we released from British tyranny not only the thirteen colonies but all the British dominions beyond the seas. It is owing to George Washington that Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa are now admitted as equals to the Round Table of the Assembly of the League of Nations.

Those who hold to the antiquated idea that race determines nationality and that patriotism is a hereditary trait and can never be acquired are blinded by prejudice to the plain facts of history. It might in fact be easier to argue on the opposite side and to support the paradox that the leaders of nationalistic movements in politics, war, or art are apt to be alien ancestry. The most fanatical exponent of pan-Germanism is Houston Chamberlain, an Englishman. Treitschke was of Bohemian blood, Nietzsche of Polish, and Moltke of Danish. O'Higgins, the national hero of Chile, bears anything but a Spanish name. Napoleon was from the island of Corsica and the empress Josephine from the island of Martinique. Kossuth, the leader of Hungarian nationalism, was not a Magyar but a Slav. Kosciusko, the Polish patriot, was born in Lithuania. Mazeppa, the father of Ukrainian nationalism, was a Pole. Bernadotte, the founder of the reigning Swedish dynasty, was a Frenchman. Alexander Hamilton, the exponent of American nationalism, was born in the island of Nevis. Columbus, who gave a new world to Spain, was an Italian. Disraeli, who originated British imperialism, was a Jew. Venizelos, to whom the expansion of Greece is due, is a Cretan by birth. Parnell, the Irish home ruler, was part Scotch and part American. Gladstone, the most typical of Englishmen, was Scotch. Wellington was Irish, so was Kitchener. Lloyd George is a Welshman if ever there was one.

In the recent war we saw the British armies led by General French, the Russian by General François, and the German by General Mackensen, whose names suggest alien origin. The kings fighting against Germany, except the Mikado, were largely of German blood. The French General Joffre is of Spanish descent. The Russian General Rennenkampff bears a German name. Russia has always drawn upon foreign talent for her generals. Alikhanoff, who planned the capture of Merv, was Ali Khan before he was christened. Nelikoff, who took Kars, was a Georgian from the Caucasus.

It would seem that the same rule holds in patriotism as in food, that acquired tastes are strongest.

It is unnecessary to show how much that is characteristically American comes from other than Anglo-Saxon sources, but I will cite one instance from the field of art. Our National Academy of Design awards every year three prizes for the promotion of American painting. These patriotic prizes are paid for by Julius Hallgarten, who directs that they be given for "three pictures painted in the United States by American citizens under thirty-five years of age." The winners of these prizes for the last three years have been: 1918, Leopold Seyffert, Lazar Raditz, Feliz Russinann; 1919, Robert Strong Woodward, Ercole Cartotto, Dines Carlsen; 1920, Armin Hanson, Kentaro Kato, John E. Costigan; only one of these distinctively American painters has an Anglo-Saxon name.

I am not competent to evaluate the various contributions made by our component races in such arts as painting, music, drama, and literature, but I can speak with some authority and full appreciation on what they have contributed to culinary art. What would we do without Hungarian goulash, French pastry, Irish stew, German delicatessen, Swiss cheese, Hindu curries, Spanish omelet, Mexican tamales, Italian macaroni, Indian corn, Russian tea, Turkish coffee, the English mutton chop, and the Chinese chop suey?

Every alien who comes to us brings with him some gift to our commonwealth though often it is hidden from our gaze. His very foreignness is an advantage, for it prevents us from being provincial. It opens our eyes to the outside world. Each migrant as he moves spins out behind him like a spider an invisible thread connecting his old home with his new. Along these threads pass ideas, impulses, and trade, and so the nations are netted together in a web of common comprehension and mutual interests.

At the time when the thirteen colonies became one nation about 14 per cent of the population were not of Anglo-Saxon-Irish blood. The percentage of the foreign-born in the United States has not increased with increasing immigration. It has not varied 1 per cent from 14 per cent in the last sixty years. There were eighteen different languages spoken in New York when the city was incorporated in 1653. Now there are more than twice as many, but the population is five thousand times as great.

There are 1,575 foreign-language journals published in the United States in thirty-eight different tongues with a total circulation of more than ten million. The mono-lingual American is apt to look with a certain suspicion upon the papers with outlandish typography that he

sees on the news stands in our cities. Yet those who can read the strangest of them tell us that they contain less sedition than certain of our English journals. Incredible as it may seem to some this spirit of Americanism will stand translation into another language or transportation into another land. Madame de Staël said that he who learned a new language acquired a new soul. But this does not necessarily mean that he loses his own soul. A common language is a great bond of unity, but the acquisition of an uncommon language does not imply disloyalty. There are better ways of proving our patriotism than by the boycott of everything that we cannot read ourselves. It is not necessary for state legislatures to prohibit the teaching of foreign languages in our colleges, for the students do not learn enough to hurt them.

Our aim is, not merely to overcome the disadvantages of our composite nationality, but to take advantage of it, to make the most of the immigrant by using him to spread Americanism and get a line on other nations. One hundred years ago, when George Tichnor of Harvard decided to go to a German university to study, he could not find anyone to teach him German. He heard that there was a German dictionary in New Hampshire and sent for it. Now if you wanted to study Basque or Korean you would find a teacher at hand. But we have not availed ourselves as fully as we might of our unique opportunity to learn how the other half of humanity lives and thinks.

The most baffling, the most discouraging of all our problems is that of the negro, where race prejudice is manifested in its most violent and lawless form. Yet even here we have not wholly failed. In spite of our harsh treatment of colored people they are flocking to the United States by thousands from the British West Indies, where they are neither lynched nor ostracized. But I prefer to draw my proofs of the Americanization of the negro from fiction rather than figures. I will retell two war stories. In our Philippine war a shipload of colored troops was sent to Manila. As they disembarked a white soldier on the dock called out: "Hello, Sambo, what are you all doing here?" The negro replied: "I'se helping bear de white man's burden, sah." And so he was.

In the late war, where black and white Americans charged the German lines side by side, one of our colored regiments was quartered next to the Senegalese of the French army. An American negro attempted to fraternize with his African brother but found that he could not understand him. The Afro-American was incredulous. "Don' tell me you been oveh heah so long you done fohgot yuh own language!"

English was his own language. Hausa was not. The negro on our continent is no longer an African. He too is an American.

The Great War proved the unity of the United States to the discomfiture of our enemies and to the surprise of the pessimists within our gates. Never in the history of the United States did the people of this country enter a war with such unanimity of mind and give it such united support. In the days when "an Englishman named George Washington took up arms against a German king called George III" we were very far from being united. A large and influential part of the population took the Tory side and all through the Revolution the country was torn by dissensions. The War of 1812 was a sectional war. It was approved by a bare majority in Congress, and New England threatened to secede because of it. The Mexican War, which to the people of the Far West, is their war of liberation from a worse than Georgian tyranny, was regarded with abhorrence in the North. Lowell wrote the *Biglow Papers* to prevent recruiting. He would have been put in prison for twenty years if he had done that now. The popular song of the day was:

> Go, go, go
> Mr. Polk, you know,
> Bids you fight and kill and quell,
> Cut their throats and make them yell,
> Send their spirits down to hell,
> Conquer Mexico!

Webster threatened President Polk with impeachment and was thanked by the Mexican government for his favor. A Boston journal said that it would be a joy to hear that every American soldier in Mexico was swept into the next world.

In the Civil War the country was not merely rent in twain, but neither side was unified at first. There were seceders from secession in the South, while in the North the abolitionists agreed for once with their enemies, the pro-slavery men, in opposing a war for the preservation of the Union. Edward Everett said: "If our sister states must leave us, in the name of heaven let them go in peace," and Whittier in his poem "A Word for the Hour" wrote: "Pity, forgive, but urge them back no more." All through the war the copperheads and pacifists were active and well organized. The disloyal order, the Knights of the Golden Circle, at one time numbered nearly a million and could mobilize an armed force of 340,000 men. When conscription was adopted a mob ran amuck in New York City for four days with the connivance of the

authorities. An orphan asylum was burned down, and in the streets men and women joined in torturing and hanging and dismembering innocent persons. In New York City alone more than a thousand people lost their lives and more than a million and a half dollars' worth of property was destroyed by the draft riots. There were no riots anywhere when the draft was applied in the present war.

The opposition to our war with Spain was furious at the time and has not yet altogether died out. Two regiments of the New York militia, the Seventh and Thirteenth, refused to serve. The House and the Senate were long deadlocked on the question of supporting the President.

Not only was the United States more united than on any previous declaration of war, but it was more united than England was when she entered. The British Cabinet was divided and three members of the government, Morley, Burns, and Trevelyan, resigned rather than consent to participation in the continental conflict. The question was never put to Parliament, but it is evident that there were more members in the House of Commons opposed to entering the war, August 3, 1914, than in the House of Representatives, April 3, 1917. The opposition in the British press was outspoken up to the very last day. The *London Daily Chronicle* of August 3 said: "Truth to tell, the issues which have precipitated the conflict which threatens to devastate the whole of Europe are not worth the bones of a single soldier." And on August 4 the *Manchester Guardian* said: "We hold it to be a patriotic duty for all good citizens to oppose to the utmost the participation of this country in the greatest crime of our time."

The participation of Italy was preceded by violent political conflicts and riotous demonstrations for and against the war. In the Italian Chamber of Deputies there were seventy-four votes against war instead of the fifty in our House of Representatives.

It appears, then, that America engaged in this world-war with greater unanimity than the other nations that entered of their own free will, and we fought it through with a single-mindedness never before manifested in our history. There were fewer extreme opponents to the war in America than in other countries. In England there were 6,135 conscientious objectors to conscription; in the United States, with more than double the population, only 2,294. There were no mutinies at the front among the American troops as there were among the French, Italian, Austrian, and Russian troops. It was not necessary to intern or expel all the alien enemies as was done in Australia, Canada,

Germany, and France. There was no case of incendiarism or blowing up of munition plants traced to enemy aliens in the United States, although our newspapers reported such crimes every day. There were no such internal disorders as occurred in the United Kingdom, Australia, Italy, Germany, Austria, and Russia. There was no such complete alteration of administration in the United States as in every other belligerent. We had the fewest cabinet changes of any government during the war. We had no such revolution as Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia. We had no attempted secessions, as in the United Kingdom, the Union of South Africa, Belgium, Russia, Austria, Germany, and Turkey.

No nation was ever before put to such a strain as ours in the Great War, for none ever contained so many representatives of the belligerent nationalities, yet none proved more stable and strong. Our national motto was not true when it was adopted, but it is now. At last the American people, regardless of racial diversity, can say with sincerity: United we stand.

JOSEPH BOND

By T. W. GOODSPEED

The branch of the Bond family from which Joseph Bond was descended had its home in Bury St. Edmunds, in Suffolk County, England, where King Canute built his great monastery, celebrated for its "magnificence and splendor." There lived Jonas Bond three hundred and more years ago. He had three grandsons who were brothers, all of whom migrated to the New World. These were Thomas, William, and John. The first of these settled in Maryland. William, an "educated merchant," made his home in Watertown, Massachusetts. John Bond, born in England in 1624, was first mentioned in the records of Newbury, Massachusetts, in 1642, so that he must have come to America in his early youth. The records of the town show that on August 5, 1649, he married Hester Blakely, and that among their children was John, born in 1650. After 1660 the family moved to Rowley, where a farm was bought, and they later settled in Haverhill, where the father died in 1675. The son John became a farmer in Beverly and with his younger brother Joseph was out fighting in King Philip's War in 1676. His son Edward was born in 1714. Hitherto the branch of the Bond family with which this narrative has to do had for a hundred years confined itself to the one county of Essex, the northeasternmost of the counties of Massachusetts. Edward Bond broke away from the home environment and migrated to the village of Leicester near the center of the state. A little after 1760 we find him keeping the public house in that place, and the total destruction of the house by fire in January, 1767, was an event of such general interest as to find a place in the records of the village. He was a selectman of the town. His son Benjamin, born in 1743, married Elizabeth Harrod, the daughter of an officer in the Revolution.

Among their sons was David, who was born in 1778. He devoted himself as he grew up to farming in Brimfield, Hampden County, and in Hardwick, in the same county of Worcester which had been the home of his father and grandfather. His son Benjamin was born in Brimfield, June 6, 1814. He, after reaching manhood, became a farmer in the town of Ware in Hampshire County, not more than a dozen miles from his boyhood home in Hardwick. He bought his farm about 1833,

when he was nineteen years old, and made it his home for fifty-seven years. He died in 1894, at the age of eighty. He was twice married and had a family of six sons and two daughters. His second wife was Louisa Eaton, a lineal descendant of Francis Eaton, who came over in the "Mayflower" in 1620. Francis Eaton was one of the signers of the famous "agreement" entered into by the Pilgrim Fathers before they landed on Plymouth Rock. He signed for himself, his wife Sarah, and his son "Samuell." Governor Bradford records that the son was a "sucking child," from which one infers that Francis Eaton was probably one of the very youngest of that company of famous Fathers. His first wife died early and he married twice after her death, he himself passing away only thirteen years after the landing, but leaving four children. From one of them was descended Louisa Eaton, the mother of Joseph Bond, of whom this sketch is written.

He was the second son of his mother and the fifth of his father. The first Mrs. Bond had three sons, and the second had three sons and two daughters. Joseph Bond was born on the Ware farm, February 13, 1852. He felt himself peculiarly rich in brothers. One of his early teachers asked his class one day, "What do farmers raise?" and Joseph, raising his hand, promptly answered, "Boys!" In the first group of boys were Nelson, Sylvester, and David; and in the second, Rufus, Joseph, and Henry.

The town of Ware is situated on the river Ware, halfway between Worcester on the east and Springfield on the southwest, about thirty-five miles from each. It has grown to be an important manufacturing point and is the nearest place of any considerable size to the center of the state. It is on the elevated plateau east of the Berkshire Hills. This table-land has a mean altitude of 1,100 feet above the sea, though the village of Ware is 600 feet lower, an illustration of the diversities of level of that whole region—low-lying meadows along the rivers and smaller water courses, climbing, sometimes gradually, often abruptly, to lofty hills and uplands. It forms a bench between the lowlands toward the coast and the mountainous country bordering the Hudson River.

Thus, while this part of central Massachusetts is called a plateau and lacks in some measure the charm and variety of the Berkshires and the ruggedness and sublimity of the Taconic Mountains of western Massachusetts, it is a most delightful country of small rivers and brooks, hills, valleys, villages, farms, and forests. The farm of Benjamin Bond lay two miles north of the village of Ware on a high table-land, so elevated that it overlooked the surrounding country in all directions,

presenting views of diversified picturesqueness and beauty. It was a dairy farm of 150 acres. Over the hill was the schoolhouse where the Bond boys and girls began their education. The soil of the old Bay State was sandy or stony, but it was unsurpassed in richness for producing the men who have built into greatness the American Commonwealth. On the hill farm of Ware the six boys of farmer Bond grew into stalwart manhood. The father was a man of great common sense and of such practical wisdom that his counsel was often sought by his neighbors. He was physically strong, stalwart, active, and none of his six sons could ever beat him in a foot race until he had passed threescore years and ten. One of his sons says of him that he was a strong man intellectually and physically. His little finger was bigger than the thumb of any of his sons after they grew to manhood. He was a kind, thoughtful, and loving father, and his six sons all looked up to him and respected him, so that his word was always law to them. He was of a strong religious character and was a deacon in the Baptist church till the meeting-house was burned, when, the house not being rebuilt, he took his family to the Congregational church. He taught a Sunday-school class for many years. He maintained the custom of family worship. Deeply religious, he was the companion and leader of his sons. He never said "Go!" to them, but "Come!" He entered into their sports and games, ran races, and pitched quoits with them, and they were naturally devoted to him. He retained his activity and vigor down to old age.

The mother being of like spirit with the father, the large family was admirably brought up under strong, wise, affectionate, Christian discipline. The children were unusually fond of each other, and there were enough of them and things enough to do to make their youth exceedingly interesting. The labors of the farm with so many hands to help were not too burdensome. Their number made it possible for them to avail themselves of all the schooling the country schools afforded. They were fortunate in living in a region which was a wonderful boys' country. In summer and autumn the woods and streams invited them. In the winter there was coasting on the hills and skating on the river and ponds. There were manhood memories of a dog, the companion and playfellow of the boys and a continuous occasion of interest and amusement. Joseph used to tell with joyful remembrance of the day when he, with his brother Rufus, in the woods for a day's fun, treed a gray squirrel. Like true boys they determined to capture it alive and take it home and tame it. Joseph, ten years old, climbed the tree to

dislodge their prey, while Rufus, the next older than himself, remained below to capture him. Joseph followed him out on a limb and succeeded in shaking him off. As he came down, Rufus, careless of consequences, caught him with his bare hands as he "would a baseball." He was, of course, badly bitten, but held on, and the young hunters carried their captive home in triumph and made a pet of him. Brought up in the country on a farm, these brothers were not without the joy of life and the fun boys ought to have.

Mr. David Bond, the second older brother of Joseph, still lives in Ware. He has drawn for me so true a picture of life on a Massachusetts farm sixty years ago that I cannot forbear giving it to my readers.

Our lives were so closely linked together that I cannot take one out by itself. In our family were six boys and two girls, who were the youngest. My two older brothers were in the Civil War during those four years, and I was anxious to go but was too young. We first went to the district school. I remember it was sometimes difficult to reach the schoolhouse, as the hill down which we went across lots to the school would be covered with ice. We would have to sit down and make a hole in the ice with our heel and draw ourselves down to that and then make a hole with the other heel and draw ourselves down to that, and so on till we reached the foot of the hill. You could hardly call it rapid transit.

We did not have much time for play, for when we reached home there would be the chores to do. In winter there would be wood to chop, but in the evenings we would crack nuts, pop corn, play checkers, etc. In the summer after our work was done we would run and see who would get first to the swimming pool, half a mile away, or we would try high jumping, pitching quoits, the three-legged race, etc. We were strong, active boys, always ready for fun, and liked to play tricks on each other. We were so far from town we did not have other boys to play with, but depended on each other and were happy by ourselves.

[Here is another squirrel story.] We used to hunt grey squirrels and always had one in the house. One Sunday father had gone ahead in the carriage to church and we boys were to follow on foot. As we were walking along through the woods we saw a squirrel run into his hole in a tree. In those days we wore high-topped boots reaching half way up to the knee. One of us took off a boot and clapped it over the hole. Another climbed the tree to a hole higher up and with a long stick we gave him managed to drive the squirrel into the boot, which we then pinched together and we had him safely. By this time it was too late to go to church. [The father, on his return from church, was placated without serious consequences.]

At another time we had been reading about how Daniel Boone practiced snuffing a candle with a rifle ball so that he could hit a deer's eye in the night. In some way we got hold of an old pistol, and after father had gone to town in the evening on some errand we boys would go up to our bedroom, take the tallow candle that was in use those days, and, placing it on a chair at one side of the room, try with out pistol to snuff it out. The walls to this day bear the marks of the bullets.

About that time we four younger boys formed the B.A.C.—the Bond Agricultural Club. We adopted a constitution and by-laws, elected officers, and held regular

monthly meetings. At these meetings we held discussions and debates. Later we made an older brother, who had returned from the war, married, and settled in Ware, an honorary member. We often met at his house and had merry times, for he and his wife were not lacking in the spirit of fun. The above is a true account of our everyday life on the old farm.

These boys naturally developed the virtues of virile young Americans. They inherited the tendencies of a long line of God-fearing ancestors. Thus they grew up clean, strong, high minded, but quite unlike in their aptitudes and ambitions. Joseph, the youngest boy but one, early developed a taste for and a purpose to seek a business career. He was fifteen years old when the country emerged from the Civil War and began to gather itself together for entering that extraordinary business expansion in railroad building, manufacturing, invention, building great cities, and combining capital for large enterprises in commerce which during the past half-century have transformed our national life. His mind responded to the new spirit of the times and he became a part of the new age in which he found himself growing up.

He was too young to enter the Civil War, but he saw his older brother, Nelson, a student in Amherst College, and Sylvester, who was in Monson Academy, leave their books to fight for their country. When he was fifteen, eager to get into the world's work, he went with his uncle Darius Eaton to learn the mason's trade. The uncle lived three miles away, but the boy, continuing to live at home, walked the three miles to his work in the morning, carrying his lunch, and back home at night. It was not his purpose to remain a mason, but he wisely reasoned that a good trade to fall back upon, if necessary, would be a valuable asset. He continued in this apprenticeship between two and three years, when he concluded that if he ever found his way into business life, as he fully intended to do, he must acquire a greater knowledge of books. All his older brothers had been in college or academies. In 1868 Rufus had been a student in Kimball Union Academy, at Meriden, New Hampshire. This was one of the feeders of Dartmouth College and was located about one hundred and twenty-five miles due north of Ware, the home of the Bonds. His brother brought back so good a report of Kimball that in the fall of 1869 Joseph made his way there. Intent on a business life he gave his studies a business direction, beginning among other things the study of accounting.

Returning home, the next two years, his eighteenth and nineteenth, were spent on the farm and in working at his trade, in which he had become an expert. He had, however, no intention of following his trade

permanently. He earned large wages for that day and his father urged him to be content with what was one of the best-paid trades in the country. But his heart was set on a business career. He was always a modest man, but it needed no vanity to assure him that his brain would carry him incomparably farther than manual labor alone. He had before his eyes in the industries of his home town, Ware, growing manufacturing establishments, illustrations of the business possibilities of the new era succeeding the Great War. He was not overwhelmed by what he saw of big business with a feeling of his own incompetence and insignificance. He was a mere boy, brought up on a farm, a worker with his hands, but he had an irremovable conviction that what he was made for was the management of big business. He did not talk about it but it was always in his mind, as every step in his subsequent career proves.

He had the sense, however, to see that in mounting that ladder he must start at the bottom, and he was on the lookout for an opportunity to get his foot on the lowest rung, confident that if he could do this he could make his way toward the top. Of this period his brother David says:

> After I had bought the Waltham Grain Store and before I took possession, while at home, Joseph told me he would like a business life as he did not wish to be tied to a trade. Father tried to argue him out of this notion, but Joseph seemed to be set in his plans. After I went to Waltham I received a letter from him asking me to find a place for him in some business house. I went up to Richardson Brothers' hardware store and asked for Mr. Richardson. The man I found there told me the partners were out and asked if he could do my business. I told him I had a brother who wanted a place in which he could grow up. This man was Mr. Pierce. He said that he was, just then, out of business, but was looking for a place, and if he found one would want a young man such as I had described Joseph to be. He asked me further if I knew of any stove and tin store for sale. I answered yes, and spoke of the Marsh Stove Store in Ware. He said he would go and see it, which he did, and bought it. The next time I saw him he told me he wanted my brother and after he took possession of the store he wrote me to have my brother call on him. I therefore wrote Joseph and told him to go to the Marsh store and I thought he would get a position. He went and that was when and where he first met Mr. Pierce.

This meeting was one of the most important events in Mr. Bond's life. He was still a boy, just arriving at his twentieth year. Mr. J. B. Pierce was much the older, but between the boy and the man a most unusual attachment grew up which united them for life. This meeting changed and gave final direction to the current of the boy's life, and was no less eventful for the man. So important, indeed, was this first meeting that it made an indelible impression on the older man's mind

and he recalled it distinctly thirty years later. For young Bond fairly precipitated himself on the new owner of the store. To show that this is not an extravagant statement and to give the story of the extraordinary friendship that resulted I quote the words of Mr. Pierce, who, after telling how he had just bought the business for $2,800, continues:

After a week or two had passed and the people in town had become reconciled to the change, I found it was necessary for me to have assistance and in some way I made the fact known. A few days thereafter, late one afternoon, the door opened quickly. I looked up and saw a boy, a young man, coming down the center of the store toward my desk as if he had been shot out of a gun. My first impulse was to get out of the way and let him go by, but he managed to stop himself in season to avoid a collision and made himself known and stated his errand. True to his instinct, even at that early day, he was the first applicant for the place, the first on the ground. Through our conversation I learned he was at that time earning $3.00 a day, but was ready to quit if he could only obtain some opportunity to begin a business life, regardless of compensation, even in opposition to the wishes of some of his people. It did not take me long to decide that in him was the material I wanted.

Monday, February 12, 1872, the day before his twentieth birthday, Joseph Bond began his life-work with me. His salary for the first year was $350.00. On August 1 following, he by his urgent request began work on the books, and subsequent to that date all the posting was done by him and nearly all the day-book entries were also made by him. . . . . During the few months we were together in that little store there was formed a tie, a bond of affectionate esteem, that could be severed but once and in only one way. He came to board with me and we went to business in the morning together and came home to our boarding-place together at night. In business and out of business we were together. After our day's work was done and we had returned to our home we usually read the Boston paper. We could afford but one, so made that suffice by tearing it in half and exchanging sheets. During these evenings together we discussed various subjects and I was much interested, as well as amused, by his account of a recent trip he had made to the Hoosac Tunnel, the farthest west he had been up to that time. He was so enthusiastic in regard to it that everything seemed to begin and end with some account of, or some mention of, that trip. I can now recall the hours, the days, and the weeks at Ware as among the happiest of my life. In February, '73, I had an opportunity to sell out and quickly accepted, leaving Joseph to start off the new firm for a few weeks and to settle up some of my own matters, while I started out to find some new and more satisfactory location in a larger field, better suited to the ambition of both, intending to call him to me as soon as I was able to find a location or business that would warrant it.

Such was the beginning of a very exceptional friendship that continued with increasing mutual confidence and regard to the end of Mr. Bond's life. Mr. Pierce was the elder by nine or ten years, a man of nearly or quite thirty when the younger man was twenty. Mr. Pierce had some business experience and a little capital. Each recognized business abilities in the other that supplemented his own. They believed in themselves and in each other. Both were ambitious. They had been

drawn together into a unique friendship and they agreed to reunite their fortunes as soon as circumstances permitted. Their plans were temporarily interfered with by the changed circumstances of both the friends. Mr. Pierce failed to find the new business location he was looking for and Mr. Bond accepted a clerkship in Waltham, Massachusetts, in the hardware store of Richardson Brothers. In two years his unusual business ability won him a partnership and the firm became Richardson and Bond.

Mr. Bond was twenty-three years old, in vigorous health, and possessed of extraordinary energy and initiative combined with unusual executive ability. The business prospered. The firm dealt principally in builders' hardware, but added to this many related lines of goods. Waltham was becoming a manufacturing town and growing into a thriving city. The business was a good one, with prospects of reasonable and permanent success. It looked as though Waltham might be Mr. Bond's permanent home, and he entered heartily into the life of the town. It was here that his openly confessed religious life began and he connected himself with the First Baptist Church, of which, though a young man, he became a pillar during his residence of eight years in Waltham. He was made an officer of the Sunday school, became a teacher of the men's Bible class, and was active and influential in the life of the church, exhibiting in his religious life the enthusiasm and energy that from the beginning characterized him in business.

It appears to have been the members of the Waltham Fire Department who set the example in our country of striking and leaving the community unprotected. Among the citizens who volunteered to fill their places was Mr. Bond, who served for more than a year as a member of Hose Company No. 4.

At the end of five years, in 1880, he found the retail hardware business too restricted to satisfy his ambition and, selling his interest in Richardson and Bond, he associated himself with the Union Manufacturing Company of New Britain, Connecticut. He said to one of his brothers-in-law in explaining this business change, "It requires no more effort to sell a carload of goods than to sell a single bolt or lock." He evidently made this change as one of the steps he must take in developing, as he was determined to do, from a retail merchant into a manufacturer and wholesaler. During his continuance in the new business he still made his home in Waltham.

The Waltham period was a very memorable one in his life. He there achieved the first ambition of his life in establishing himself in

business. This was no less gratifying to his father than to himself. Mr. Pierce once told this story, showing the deep affection Mr. Bond's father cherished for his son and the high hopes he entertained for his future. While the son was still a clerk in Waltham Mr. Pierce said: "I met his father on the train near Orange, Massachusetts. Our conversation naturally turned toward Joseph, and among other things, and with a voice trembling with emotion, he said, 'Mr. Pierce, if Joseph ever has an opportunity he will make his mark in the world.'" His first opportunity came in Waltham. He improved it and at twenty-three was partner in a promising business.

Another thing that made the Waltham period memorable was his marriage. Among the young people of the church he made the acquaintance of a most attractive young woman, Miss Mary Adelia Olney. Mutual attachment was followed by an engagement, which, at the end of three years, in 1879, resulted in their marriage. It is said that all the Olneys in the United States spring from a single family which came from England in 1635. Olney, the town which was long the home of the family in the mother-country, situated in the northern part of the county of Buckingham, may be found in any good map of England.

Thomas Olney, born in the adjacent county of Hertford, came to this country in the ship "Planter" in 1635 and settled in Salem, Massachusetts. Sympathizing with the views of Roger Williams, he was banished with him and became one of the thirteen original "proprietors" of Providence, Rhode Island. He was chosen the first treasurer of the new colony. He was made a commissioner to form a town government for Providence and a judge. He was one of the grantees of the royal charter granted to Rhode Island by Charles II. He was one of the founders of the First Baptist Church of Providence and for a time was acting pastor of that now ancient church. It is evident that he was a leading spirit in that infant colony of political and religious heroes. The historians have called him a "manager of men."

Charles Olney, of the eighth generation from Thomas, the Providence magnate, was born in Watertown, New York, in 1833, in 1858 married Julia A. Haynes, and in 1860 moved to Waltham, Massachusetts, and became connected with the Waltham Watch Company, continuing with that company through the rest of his life. He had four children. There were two sons, Lewis, now of New York, and Charles, who is secretary of the Waltham Watch Company, and two daughters, one of whom married Dr. Emory W. Hunt, an eminent Baptist clergyman and

educator, now president of Bucknell University. As has already been told, the other daughter, Mary Adelia, became the wife of Mr. Bond when he was twenty-seven years old.

Another thing that made the Waltham period memorable was an acute illness that brought all Mr. Bond's plans to sudden and apparently complete and final ruin. He was stricken with Bright's disease. His physicians gave him not to exceed two more years of life. They assured him that to prolong his life even two years he must abandon his business and betake himself to Poland Springs, Maine, for prolonged rest and treatment. The opinions and advice were so positive and final that he could not disregard them without the fear that he would incur the guilt of suicide. This overthrow of his hopes and plans occurred in 1880, the year following his marriage. He sold his business, and having by this time accumulated sufficient means to indulge himself in the rest and treatment prescribed, went to the Springs to drink the waters and take the one chance in a thousand left him to prolong his life.

What, meantime, had become of Mr. Pierce and the plans the two men had formed to become permanently associated? They had never lost sight of each other, but Mr. Pierce had found great difficulty in re-establishing himself in business. Toward the end of 1873 he had made a start in Buffalo, but the panic of that year interfered with his progress and he had, as he says, "ample occupation, physically and mentally, to keep above" the general wreck and ruin that surrounded him. "Years passed before I sufficiently recovered and was in a position to call Joseph to my aid." The time for their reunion seemed to have come in 1880, and a little before his breakdown, in the summer of that year, Mr. Bond went to Buffalo for a conference. The two men went together to Bradford, Pennsylvania, with a view of opening there a hardware and general supply store, but after a thorough investigation decided that the field was too small. They separated, but with the old purpose still strong in their hearts to go into business together as soon as the way opened. Theirs was, if such a thing can be, a romantic business friendship. Mr. Bond's last word to his older friend as they parted had been, "I am ready to come when you say the word." In continuing the story Mr. Pierce said:

> In the summer of '81, through a little rift in the clouds of business depression, I thought I could detect signs that the time for which we had waited years was at hand, and I wrote him to come to Buffalo. In a few days he was there. Though his physician had given him but six months to live and of this time much had already passed, his coming to me seemed to give him new life, and he was as full of energy and enthusiasm as if in perfect health.

The year previous I had built on leased ground a little shop of second-hand lumber, costing, complete, about five hundred dollars, and had begun making steel boilers. Here we made the first home of the Pierce Steam Heating Company.

Under this name and in these humble quarters the two friends became partners.

Mr. Bond did not die, as the doctors predicted. The treatment he had taken and the regimen to which he had subjected himself had benefited him beyond belief and he had returned to business with a courage few men could have commanded. He willed to be well enough to work; but he was never again, during the twenty years he continued to live, a well man. He lived on a prescribed diet. He drank always and everywhere, at home and abroad, the same kind of water. Customs officials in Europe found it quite incredible that a traveler should be carrying bottles of water about the continent, where there was wine or beer or vodka to drink. Never again well, he was often very ill, but he prosecuted his business with tremendous, quite unbelievable, energy.

In 1882 he took his family to Buffalo. A daughter, Elfleda, had been born in Waltham, and later another, Louise, was born in Buffalo, which remained the home of the family for ten years.

Mr. Bond soon recognized the new opening in Buffalo as the great opportunity of which he had long dreamed. His business gifts were of the highest order. His organizing and executive talents were of the sort that command success. As has been intimated, the business qualities of one partner complemented those of the other. Mr. Pierce was conservative, perhaps slow to seize opportunities. He was apparently content to allow his business to develop slowly. Mr. Bond was aggressive. He wished to push the business to the utmost. He was constantly on the lookout for new openings through which it might be developed. All this is perfectly apparent in the following statement made by Mr. Pierce in speaking of the extraordinary kindliness of Mr. Bond's disposition. He said: "Impatient at times I may have been, while striving to hold in check his almost *resistless* energy, or while veering this way or that, to avoid the ruts in the highway of our progress."

This is a most illuminating picture of the characteristics and relations of the two men: one perhaps ultra-conservative, suspicious of too rapid development, a little afraid, at first, of tackling big business; the other eager, progressive, welcoming development, afraid of nothing in the way of legitimate progress. Neither had, hitherto, had anything to

do with big business. Mr. Bond not only sought and welcomed it, but, as it came, grew into it easily, naturally, as men born with the instinct for large affairs do. And large development was not slow in coming to the new firm.

It began by manufacturing steel boilers. This business led in no long time—within a few months, in fact—to the necessity for manufacturing steam radiators. The two lines of business belonged together. Each was incomplete and was conducted at a disadvantage without the other. Various efforts were made to get the radiators made by outside manufacturers. These efforts failing, the two partners, with orders, and indeed with contracts, on hand, faced a serious situation. Finally they sat down in their office, took their pencils, and made a sketch of the radiator they wanted and took it to the best pattern-maker in Buffalo and had a pattern made. This they patented and went out to get it manufactured.

Then their real difficulties began. At every foundry in Buffalo they were told that radiators could not be made from the pattern. "At all the largest and best foundries in Boston" they were told the same thing. Undismayed, they leased a little foundry in Westfield, Massachusetts, and made the radiators themselves. These were indirect radiators. During the next two or three years the business so increased that orders could not be filled through the small foundry at Westfield and it was found necessary to build a much larger one in Buffalo. "The union of conservative business ability and executive enterprise soon gave evidence of progress toward a wider sphere and a greater business accomplishment." This growth of business in indirect radiators soon led to a demand for direct radiators. Patterns were made and obstacles were again encountered. "A representative manufacturer, who was considered a high authority in all matters pertaining to cast-iron radiators," told the partners they could not be made, "as he had repeatedly tried it and failed." But Mr. Bond would not be discouraged and pushed on to success where others had failed.

This success in the field of direct heat radiation led to a rapid and large expansion in the business, and the firm was soon enjoying large prosperity. The growth of the business was almost bewildering. The partners were fairly driven to one step of expansion after another. The senior partner acknowledging that a "kind Providence outlined the way," makes this naïve confession: "Blindly, almost stupidly, I followed, only because I was compelled to, though contesting to the utmost every step." One cannot help connecting this with that other confession as

to his impatience, while striving to hold in check Mr. Bond's "almost resistless energy."

Mr. Bond had charge of the outside work. He got the orders which Mr. Pierce, in charge of the manufacturing plant, filled. Mr. Bond had an extraordinary gift for securing business. It was this gift and the driving force behind it that caused his partner so much concern. One who knew the facts at first hand told the writer how on one occasion Mr. Bond brought in two very large orders and his partner broke out in sudden consternation, "How could you do such a thing as that? We can't possibly execute two orders of such magnitude on time." These expostulations were received with serenity and with the suggestion that they look into the matter thoroughly and see what they could do. A day or two of reflection and examination and discussion made it clear that the works were quite equal to the demand made upon them and the orders were filled on time. Mr. Bond was constantly reaching out after new business and pushing forward and was recognized by all who were familiar with the facts as the "money maker" of the concern. If Mr. Pierce's conservatism held Mr. Bond's resistless energy in check to some extent, the executive genius of the latter carried the concern on to larger and ever larger success. In 1889 it was incorporated with Mr. Bond as treasurer and a capital of $150,000.

In this year also, Mr. Bond, accompanied by Mrs. Bond, made his first trip abroad. Always frail after his breakdown in 1880, he found himself in imperative need of rest. But he made this period of travel and rest minister to his business as well as to his health. It will be recalled by older readers that the first steam and hot-water radiators were far from attractive in design and were not regarded as decorative furnishings. One of the objects of Mr. Bond's first trip abroad, therefore, was the obtaining of improved designs to make the radiator more artistic and decorative so that, instead of diminishing, it would increase the attractiveness of any room. England, France, and other countries were visited. Several months were spent agreeably and profitably. Mr. Bond's health was improved; new and more artistic designs were brought back; and the conception of extending the business to foreign countries began to take shape in his mind.

Meantime the home business was growing beyond their ability to care for it, and early in the nineties steps began to be taken which resulted in 1892 in the organization of the American Radiator Company. Another factor also was influential in creating the new organization. Other radiator companies came into existence and began a keen competition

for business. A cut in prices by one company led to a greater one by others. Profits diminished to the vanishing-point. The business of the Pierce Steam Heating Company was large and increasing but it began to look as though it could not continue to be profitable. A struggle for existence between heating companies impended. The more far-sighted men in the radiator business began to see the necessity of a combination of companies large enough to cut down greatly the overhead charges, reduce generally the cost of production, and thus benefit the public and at the same time increase the business.

The preliminary efforts toward this end were initiated by John B. Dyar of Michigan. The first negotiation was conducted by Clarence M. Woolley with Mr. Pierce in Buffalo in the early autumn of 1891. The progressive leaders of the three leading companies, the Pierce Steam Heating Company of Buffalo, the Michigan Radiator and Iron Manufacturing Company, and the Detroit Radiator Company, the two latter of Detroit, then got together to consider whether these companies could not be combined into a single corporation. From this time Mr. Bond's influence became an important element in helping the various parties to reach a final agreement. One acquainted with all the circumstances says, "Mr. Bond from the very inception of the negotiations recognized the potential possibilities, and had it not been for his influence with the late John B. Pierce I do not think it would have been possible to have carried the original conception through to a successful conclusion. I therefore do not think it would be fulsome praise to accord to Mr. Bond the credit of having played the most important part in the negotiations" which resulted in the formation of the American Radiator Company.

The difficulties in the way of reaching an agreement were many and at times must have seemed almost insuperable. The Pierce Company was the largest of the three, and the interest of the president of that company was larger than that of all others. Very conservative, he was reluctant to enter into new and large schemes. But Mr. Bond was so completely confided in by him, as to be able to convince him and win him over to the proposed combination. He finally assented to the plan on one condition, that Mr. Bond should be made president of the new corporation. The spirit and practical business wisdom of Mr. Bond had so won the esteem and confidence of his fellow-negotiators that they were quite ready to meet this condition.

The plan adopted was a simple one. A new corporation was organized—the American Radiator Company, with Mr. Bond as president,

John B. Pierce and Edward A. Sumner as vice-presidents, Clarence M. Woolley, secretary, and Charles H. Hodges, treasurer. The company was organized under the laws of Illinois and the principal office was located in Chicago. This company "purchased all the rights, titles, and interests" of the three companies, and the American Radiator Company was ready to begin business.

It was then that the real difficulties began. Mr. Bond immediately moved to Chicago and entered on the work of organizing the business of the new concern. Eleven years later Mr. Pierce said in an address to the board of directors:

> Some of you do not know and cannot comprehend the chaos that existed in this organization, or rather disorganization, January 1, 1892, and perhaps it is well that you do not, for you would never believe it possible that such a beautiful whole had been conceived and brought forth from such a confusion of parts. It was like the bringing together of the multitudinous parts of three different machines and so adjusting each separate part to the others that all the delicate mechanism performed its work, and all the while keeping every wheel in motion.
>
> When in 1892 the American Radiator Company was formed, I believe I am correct when I state that no one of us original stockholders had any comprehension of what was before us, or of the magnitude our business would reach after ten years under the leadership of Joseph Bond.
>
> He possessed the faculty and power of imparting to others, to an astonishing degree, his own force, and his associates and every employee of this company with whom he ever came in contact have felt the thrilling and magnetic touch of his enthusiasm. We who have been his associates for years, when hereafter discussing business problems, will often ask ourselves unconsciously what line of action Joseph would pursue, or what he would say if he were here to speak.

One of Mr. Bond's associates relates the following of his method of dealing with customers. When in the early years of the American Radiator Company a man would come in with a large order and say, "I suppose you will guarantee these goods?" Mr. Bond would say, "Let me tell you a story. When I was a young man in a little hardware store in Ware, Massachusetts, we used to sell axe heads to men cutting trees in the woods. They were guaranteed to us and we guaranteed them to the wood choppers. They were often brought back split open and we would replace them. But a company proposed to sell us a new brand of axe heads, and when we asked if they would guarantee to replace every one that split they said, 'These axe heads will not split and need no guarantee. They will cost you a little more because they are of so superior a quality that they will not split open or break.' We decided to try them, and sold them without any guarantee on their merits. And they never split or broke. That experience taught me a

great lesson—to make goods of the best quality, that will sell on their merits. That is the kind we are selling you." And the customer would give his order and go away satisfied.

During the nineties Mr. Bond made several trips abroad for pleasure or for his health or in the interest of the business. The foreign demand for the new heating, which he had foreseen, now developed. England and the continent of Europe began to order heating equipment and the negotiations sometimes required the presence of some of the higher officers of the company. This foreign business continually increased until it became apparent that plants for the manufacture of heating appliances must be constructed in distant countries. An Illinois corporation was not at that time authorized to hold stock in other corporations, and in 1899 the company was reincorporated under the laws of New Jersey. In the annual report to stockholders—his last—issued in January, 1902, Mr. Bond said:

> The foreign business has for some years continued to grow, until its proper care and development necessitated the construction of a plant in France, which is in successful operation, and, although steam and water-heating appliances are thus far used to but a limited extent in that country, a good beginning has been made.
>
> In Germany it has also been found desirable to construct a plant, which is nearing completion and which will be in operation within a few months, the introduction of American methods of manufacture proving to be the best policy and promising better for the future than any other course.

This policy has been continued by the company until plants exist in England, France, Germany, Belgium, Italy, Austria, and Canada, in all of which countries subsidiary companies have been organized.

This growing foreign business, although Mr. Bond lived to see its beginnings only, took him abroad more than once. In the spring of 1898 he took his family for an extended tour through England and continental Europe. Sailing from New York March 26, they returned August 12, after an absence of four and a half months. After spending eighteen days in London and other parts of England, they went to Paris and a week later to Switzerland. Three weeks in May were given to Rome and the other Italian cities. After ten days more in Switzerland, they visited Cologne, Hamburg, Dresden, and Berlin. From Germany they went by way of Poland to Moscow, St. Petersburg, and other cities of Russia. Sweden, Denmark, and Holland were next visited. Proceeding to London, a few days more were given to places of historic interest in England, and the last days of July and the first days of August were given to the principal cities and the highlands of Scotland. From

Edinburgh they proceeded to Liverpool and sailed for home August 6 on the "Campania," which had taken them over. It was a memorable trip, never to be forgotten by Mr. Bond's children.

The demands of business had, however, required a good deal of his time. Conditions in France and Germany were maturing for the construction of manufacturing plants, and Mr. Bond was frequently called upon to leave the family and spend days or weeks in studying conditions, consulting business men, examining possible sites, and initiating negotiations which later led to large results. The more immediate of these results was the erection of the first foreign plants in France and Germany, the plant in France being the first one completed. The months were very busy ones for Mr. Bond. He spent as much time as possible with his family, but while they were visiting Switzerland, Holland, and Scotland, he was engaged in laying the foundations of the business which has since assumed the large proportions already described. But although he worked hard much of the time, he returned from this tour "much benefited in health," as an associate in business wrote, to resume his intense and strenuous application to the work of which he was so fond and for which he was so peculiarly fitted.

The business meantime grew to larger and larger proportions, both at home and abroad. Notwithstanding the frailty and uncertainty of his health, Mr. Bond continued for ten years to conduct it with the greatest skill and efficiency, until it became the largest of its kind in the world. And he did more than this. He might well have excused himself from all labors outside the exacting demands of his business; but he was a devout man, deeply interested in the progress of the Kingdom of God and the welfare of young men. His pastors testified that he was always in his place in the church on Sunday and at the midweek meetings. After making Chicago his home, he united with the Immanuel Baptist Church. Going into the Sunday school he took the fragment of a class of young men and built it up into a great organization of a hundred and fifty young men, which the church named the Bond Bible Class. He became a trustee of the Divinity School of the University of Chicago and here also manifested his interest in young men by giving the money to send a graduate student to Egypt and Palestine for study.

Mr. Bond was a Republican in politics. He did not have time or strength to devote to club life, his own business and that of the Kingdom of God absorbing him. He was, however, a member of the Chicago, Union League, Quadrangle, and Onwentsia clubs. At the Quadrangle

he met the University circle, and the Onwentsia gave him the exercise and recreation of golf.

For more than twenty years Mr. Bond fought a heroic battle against physical infirmities. Nine men out of ten with his bodily handicap would have regarded themselves as invalids, unfitted for labor or business. In 1880, given by physicians not more than two years to live, and a little later only six months, he not only survived twenty-two years but during all that time did the work of two of three men in vigorous health. He had frequent sicknesses but rallied from them by apparently supreme efforts of the will and with sublime courage grappled again with the heavy responsibilities of a new business. I say a new business, for during all these years his business was always a new one. The Pierce Steam Heating Company's business was so new that he had to lay its very foundations and mark out its policies. It developed in such unforeseen directions that during the ten years of its rapid enlargement it was never the same for six consecutive months but always new, calling for new plans, new methods, and new mental resources in the director of its policies.

In the organization of the American Radiator Company, again everything was new, calling forth powers hitherto unused. The marvelous development of that company, so much greater than its projectors dreamed of, and the new fields it entered made the experience of every year a novel one. The experience must have been mentally exhilarating in the highest degree. But the president had a singularly alert and resourceful mind. To every fresh demand made on his powers he responded with a facility and readiness of resource that showed a mind innately constituted for business. Nature, with experience added, made him a great business organizer and administrator.

The physicians were not entirely at fault in their diagnoses. The disease that prostrated him in 1880 never left him. Dr. O. P. Gifford, one of his pastors, said:

> For two and twenty years this man withstood disease. . . . . In 1880 his physicians gave him the warning of death—that he had but a few months to live. He went aside and said to the Lord, "I have done nothing yet," (few men have done much at thirty), "give me twenty years that I may do a man's work." When the final summons came he turned to his companion and said, "God has been good. I asked for twenty years. He gave twenty-two, good measure, pressed down, running over." Again and again during these twenty years he walked to the edge of the Valley of the Shadow, looked in, girt the loins of his strength by an act of will, and said, "Not yet," and came back to the land of the living. Of this man it might be said death crouched at his door. Death was his constant companion, present as one's

shadow on a sunny day. It ever closely followed, except at times when the shadow of its presence stepped in front of him. He knew not when the silver cord would be loosed—the golden bowl broken—but manfully, bravely, he toiled on.

We know not all that he resisted. He carried a load of disease upon one shoulder, and to balance it he took a burden of business upon the other. . . . . He conquered success where most men would have been conquered by disease. . . . . He lived a simple life. He lived as an athlete lives. What might have been right in perfect health became wrong when fighting disease. His self-restraint gave him power.

But alas, his power was not sufficient to carry him beyond the year 1902. He had seen his older daughter, Elfleda, happily married, and his younger daughter, Louise, grow to womanhood. He had seen the new business combination extraordinarily successful even in the first ten years he lived to administer its work, and so wisely organized and solidly founded as to insure the remarkable development that has since characterized it. And then the end came.

In the spring of 1902 his health was finally broken. After an illness of three months he passed away on August 8. Dr. Gifford said, "When the final call came against which he could no longer struggle, he said, turning to his companion, 'God knows best. He has the wider view.' "

But the pity of it! He was still a young man, only fifty years of age. If he were living today his powers would just be ripening. He had had only twenty years to improve the opportunity his father craved for him, but in that short time he had made his mark in the world. What would he not have done had he lived to a good age! His pastor, Dr. Johnston Myers, said of him, "He was able at the close of his life to know that he stood at the head of one of the largest and most respected business enterprises in the world. He was well on the way to become one of the great factors in finance. Had his life been spared he would no doubt have amassed a great fortune." He certainly would have participated in the prosperity of the great business over which he presided.

Mr. Bond's death was followed by many touching and significant tributes to his memory. Just before the funeral service in his home church Sunday morning, August 10, 1902, one hundred and twenty-five members of the Bond Bible Class met and pledged themselves to carry on vigorously the work of the founder and first teacher of the class. The final service was held the following day in the Delaware Avenue Baptist Church in Buffalo, in which city he was buried. One of his associates wrote of these services:

Nothing could better show the fond esteem in which Mr. Bond is held than was manifested by the presence of the large delegation from the Company's organization

and by the tender care and the affection with which each individual member devoted himself to see that in the last rites every honor was done to the man whose kindly sympathetic nature has ever been an inspiration to us all, whose aim and act had been to duplicate himself in others.

So completely did Mr. Bond project his great and comprehensive personality throughout the center and circumference of our company that if we can show our worthiness to carry on the work in which he so splendidly led we cannot help but feel the touch of his presence in all that we do in the years which are to follow. The joy and pride of the creative workman ever filled him with that wonderful energy and enthusiasm which so often amazed us. His duties were his pleasures. His pleasures were his duties.

Few men exhibit the remarkable balance of qualities that was seen in Mr. Bond. He was at the same time strong and gentle. He had none of the brusqueness that is usually found in the strong, nor any of those negative traits that so often characterize the gentle. He had a singular purity and sweetness of nature which, combined with strength and vigor, won affection and commanded respect and confidence. His partner of twenty years, who was profoundly impressed by his "almost resistless energy," felt just as deeply the nobility, goodness, and sweetness of his character. He said of him:

Tender and considerate of the feelings of others, his whole nature abounded in love. . . . . He had a kind word for everybody, and on all occasions, and in the days of our beginning, days that try men's souls, he was at his best. . . . . He possessed most remarkable self-control, if with him self-control were necessary, which I doubt. I never heard him utter an unkind word, nor did I ever hear him speak unkindly to or of any person. Apparently there was no source in his nature from which an unkind word or act could spring.

These were words spoken to Mr. Bond's immediate associates in business who knew him almost or quite as well as the speaker.

His thoughtfulness for others greatly impressed his pastor, who said: "A consulting physician who was present in the sick room in the last hours said, 'I have never seen a case quite like this. Here is a dying man looking after my comfort.'" He would occasionally say to the pastor, "You are not looking well this morning. Now I insist upon it that you go away for a few days." Then he would suggest a good place to visit and provide the means.

He loved to give to good causes. He said that he made money with the thought that he was to do good with it. His minister said, "He made thousands and gave thousands each year." Giving was the spontaneous expression of his nature. Had he but lived to our time he would have been one of the great givers to those great causes that appeal to men of this new day.

Mr. Bond had two daughters. The elder, Elfleda, was married in 1901 to Edgar J. Goodspeed, now professor of Biblical and Patristic Greek in the University of Chicago. The younger, Louise Pierce Bond, in 1906 bacame the wife of Joseph F. Rhodes, a young business man, and they made their home in Pasadena, California. They have growing up about them four boys—Foster Bond, Robert Edgar, Kenneth Olney, and David Eaton Rhodes.

Mr. Bond was the companion and ideal and idol of his children. The happiness of his family was his chief concern. When he left his office he left his business behind him. Home was not disturbed by its cares. There he gave himself to his family with the same devotion that he gave himself to business in business hours. When he entered the door of his house the happiness of his wife and children became his business. He had a keen sense of humor which there was given full play.

One of the most extraordinary things about him was that, although he never knew a well day during the last twenty-two years of his life and often suffered cruelly, he always brought into his home an atmosphere of courage, cheer, good humor, and happiness. His family waited for and welcomed his return from business. His daughters flew to greet him. Sunshine flooded the house. His love and cheerfulness made it a happy place.

He carefully trained his daughters in habits of observation. Every evening they were expected to give him the story of their day, in which he was sympathetically interested. In their travels together they were encouraged to observe everything of interest and at the close of the day to recount what they had seen and discuss with him every incident of interest. He thus sought to store their minds with interesting memories and turn their education into practical channels. His method of teaching, in his Bible class and at home, was the Socratic method. He awakened interest and provoked discussion by suggestive questions.

Since his death Mrs. Bond has spent much of her time with her daughters, giving part of the year to each. She has long cherished a purpose to build some enduring memorial of Mr. Bond. As he had been a trustee of the Divinity School of the University of Chicago, her mind naturally turned to that institution. She had felt strongly inclined to make the memorial in a fund for fellowships and scholarships. Funds, however, having been given the University for the erection of a Theological Lecture Hall, she listened to the proposal that she should

put the memorial into the form of a Divinity Chapel to be independent of, but connected by a cloister with, this Lecture Hall. In 1917 therefore she gave the University $50,000 for this purpose. Since that time the securities have increased in value and the interest has accrued so that when the Bond Memorial Chapel is erected the contribution will amount to a much larger sum than was originally given. The plans for the building have been made and its erection only waits for the time when construction costs so react as to be within reason.

The Divinity School Chapel is to be a typical collegiate chapel in the English Gothic style. Its interior dimensions will be: width, 28 feet, height, 42 feet, and length, 84 feet. It will accommodate two hundred people, besides having room in the chancel stalls for twenty more. It is to stand at right angles with Haskell Museum and the Divinity Halls, centered on the north side of the Graduate Quadrangle. It will be entered from a glazed cloister connecting it with the new Theological Building. Within, it will be wainscoted to a height of twelve feet, that is, up to the base of the fourteen great traceried windows that will fill the upper walls and give the building, whether seen from within or without, the Gothic rhythm. The upper walls are to be finished in Bedford stone, and the roof will be timbered. The most richly decorated part of the building will be the east front, as one approaches it under the bridge which is to connect the Theological Building with Haskell. But its symmetry of design and its carefully studied proportions will make it an attractive feature not only of the Graduate Quadrangle but also of the new theological group of which it is to form a part.

The chief distinction of Mr. Bond's life was his intimate connection with the infancy, development, and vast expansion of one of the great industries of the modern world. Within a little more than a generation methods of heating have been revolutionized. Only forty years have passed since stoves and hot-air furnaces were the ordinary, almost the only, means of heating homes and business places. All this has been changed by the steam and hot-water radiator, which is now found everywhere. Mr. Bond was one of the principal agents in bringing about this extraordinary revolution. He helped to lay the foundations of what has now become a very great industry, drafting the models of some of the very first radiators. He was one of the introducers of hot-water heating and one of the organizers and the president of the principal radiator company of the world. He made this a more comfortable world to live in, distinctly advanced the general happiness and health, and made himself a benefactor of mankind.

This sketch cannot be better concluded than by quoting from two tributes to Mr. Bond made by his successor in the presidency of the American Radiator Company, Mr. Clarence M. Woolley. Both were made before the directors of the company, who knew Mr. Bond intimately. The first was made at the first meeting of the board after his death in 1902.

Those of us whose good fortune it has been to he his associates on this board can bear testimony to the greatness of his character, the gentleness and sweetness of his spirit, and the inestimable value of the distinguished service he has rendered the company he loved so well.

The merging into effective corporate existence of interests that had for years been pursuing a policy of aggressive, competitive warfare was not an easy or a simple task. The principle was then comparatively new. We could not call to our assistance the advice and counsel of those who had had practical experience along these lines. Mr. Bond's task was, therefore, all the greater and his performance all the more admirable, for it was largely by his influence that the orignal component parts of this corporation were brought together in a manner so harmonious that the splendid record with which we are all familiar was made possible.

More than any person whom we have ever known, Mr. Bond possessed to a conspicuous degree the qualities that were essential for this, his great life-work. Endowed with unusual strength and keenness of mentality, he had also what seemed to be a constitution of iron, which many of his closest associates only learned after many years was subjected to the menace of a fatal malady.

He surrendered himself absolutely and completely to the well-being of our business. In all the years that we knew him he was never known to shield or withhold himself, however great the cost of time or strength.

Shoulder to shoulder, and in the same office with him for a decade, his immediate associates learned to honor his integrity and to appreciate the Christian qualities and principles from which he never departed. His methods were all direct. He was never known to resort to artifice, exaggeration, or deception. Gifted as very few men are for debate and argument, he gained his points by the force of his logic and never resorted to methods that compelled him to compromise his high ideals.

He was one of the kindest, most gentle, most considerate men we ever knew—qualities that very rarely blend themselves so conspicuously with the unusual strength of mind that he possessed.

He was courteous to all men. He never expressed an unkind, impatient, or selfish thought, and was tolerant to a remarkable degree. His power to concentrate the entire wealth of his ability upon the thing he had to do was quite unusual, and yet he was easily approached and ever had time to listen to the most obscure person in our organization. He worked with great enthusiasm and great intensity. When he focused his powers he accomplished in a few hours what it would have taken many men days to achieve. He had that remarkable and unusual subtlety and magnetism which inspired his colleagues and associates with enthusiasm, and which extended through the length and breadth of our organization. It is to this quality, perhaps, as much as to any other single cause that he owed his success as a leader.

Cautious, deliberate, and careful before acting, he never lost the main chance by postponement. He devised the plan that seemed best to him, firmly believing it

to be the only one to accomplish the purpose in hand. He never doubted for a moment, nor gave heed to thought that suggested failure. He never retreated once he decided to advance. He believed so enthusiastically in the efficiency of his plans that this very element became an important factor in making for their success. He possessed to a rare degree this essential quality of leadership.

To show that this generous tribute to his predecessor in office was not merely inspired by the then recent death of Mr. Bond but by the profound and enduring impression made by his great qualities I quote from remarks made by President Woolley to the directors fifteen years later, in 1917.

Joseph Bond, the first president of the company, served in such capacity until his demise, August 8, 1902. A man of exceptional brilliancy and boundless energy, kindly of heart and humane in spirit, he was ever active in promoting the welfare of his fellow-associates.

He was infinitely patient, always tolerant, and never lacking in sympathetic comprehension for those who sought his counsel and advice. These qualities, however, did not enfeeble his will to do justice, nor obscure the clearness of his vision.

Active in church work and fervent in his accepted faith, he did not preach his creed but practiced it in all his dealings. He therefore commanded not only the profound respect of his associates but won their affectionate regard.

The rectitude of his conduct and the fineness of his spirit were infectious. A wise and just counselor, he naturally became the example and pattern which the younger men of the company have constantly held before them for emulation.

In a true sense the traditions of his service have been transmitted as a heritage to the company and to those on whom has fallen the duty of carrying on the work he so splendidly began. All who were brought closely in contact with his personality, in high as well as in lowly places throughout the organization, have ever sought to perpetuate by daily application those principles which he exemplified.

We think it appropriate on this occasion to pause for an instant again to record this tribute to our departed associate, Joseph Bond, whose brilliant leadership, great ability, and high character laid the enduring foundations of company success.

It is delightful to write the story of the life of a good man who was as strong as he was good, in whom every spiritual, moral, and social excellence was matched by equal intellectual and practical business qualities; who loved the Kingdom of God and was a good citizen of his country; who was active in good works and energetic in his business; who was an idealist and a practical man of affairs; who was amiable and at the same time dynamic; who was at once gentle and powerful; who spoke kindly and wrought mightily; who was unpretentious in word but efficient in action. Such was Joseph Bond, one of those rare personalities who combine in themselves qualities at once dissimilar and yet essential in making the ideal man. Nearer than most he approached that ideal.

THE THEOLOGY BUILDING AND BOND CHAPEL

The history of the Divinity School may be traced in its successive homes. It began its work in the classrooms of the Old University of Chicago, in 1866. In its first year it enrolled twenty students. In 1868 it entered a building of its own, which still stands at the corner of Rhodes Avenue and Thirty-fourth Street. In 1877 the debt incurred in erecting this building drove the institution to new quarters in Morgan Park. In Morgan Park it remained for fifteen years, having at the end of that time a dormitory, a lecture hall and chapel, and a library building. These it left in 1892 to become a part of the newly organized University of Chicago, in which theological education was from the first integrated with the work of the University in a manner not precisely paralleled elsewhere in American education.

At the University, the Divinity School, as it now began to be called, was assigned lecture-rooms on the fourth floor of Cobb Lecture Hall, while its students were housed in the dormitories especially erected for them. The Divinity School was the first part of the University to have dormitories provided especially for its students; but for lecture rooms of its own it was to wait almost thirty years.

The completion of Haskell Oriental Museum in 1896 made it possible for the Divinity work to be transferred from Cobb to the classrooms which Haskell provided. The dedication of the building was one of the leading features of the Quinquennial Celebration, the Divinity students reproducing a Jewish synagogue service of the time of Christ as part of the dedicatory exercises. Haskell was not only the theological headquarters on the Quadrangles, but served as administration building as well, for in it President Harper and after him President Judson had his office. From its erection in 1896 until the completion of the Harper Memorial Library in 1912, the President's office was in the south end of the first floor of Haskell.

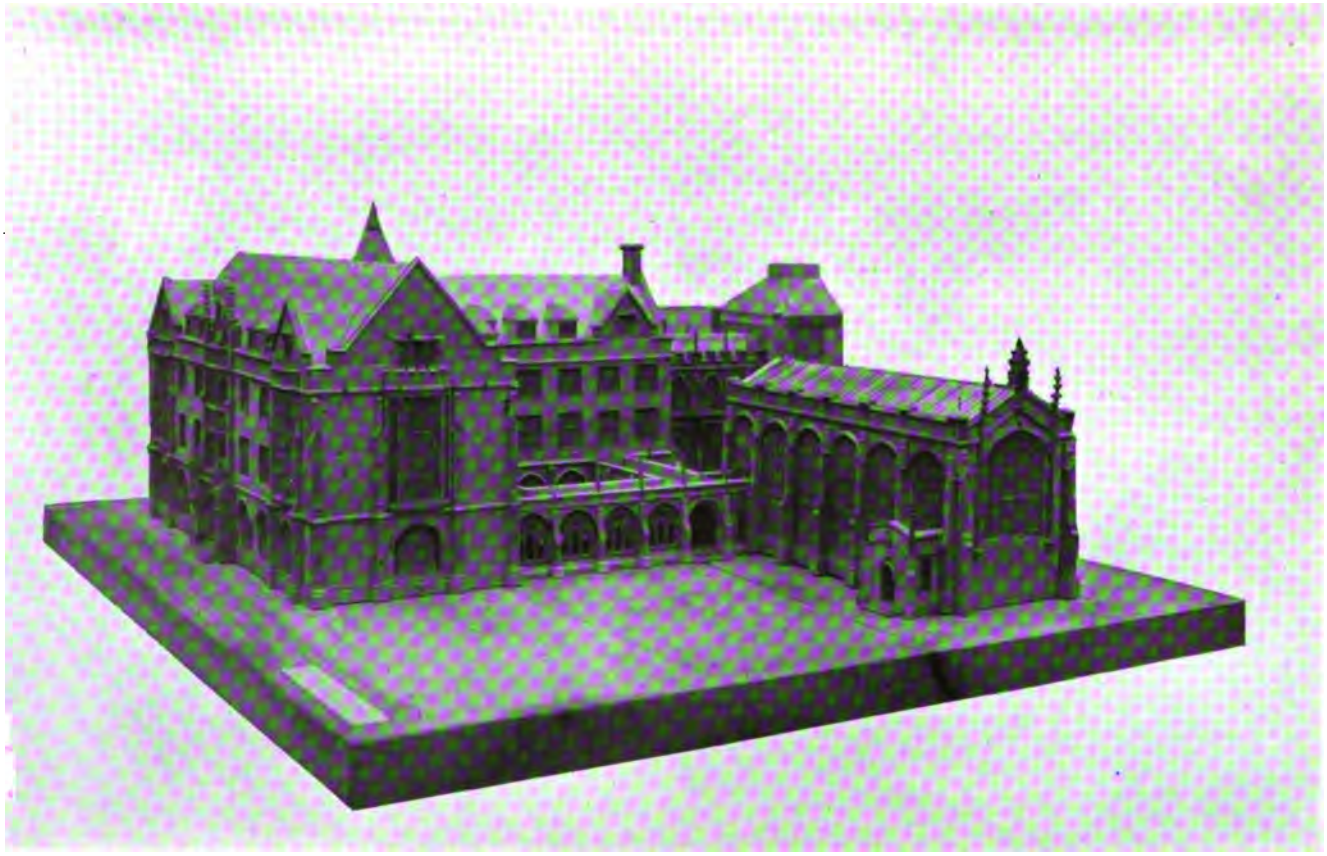
But Haskell was not built for a lecture hall, and the growth of the Divinity School, which now enrols more than four hundred students each year, and the growth of the museum collections, which now imperatively need space they did not require in 1896, have combined to make new quarters for the theological work of the University a necessity. It

must also be said that the third floor of Haskell, however advantageous it may be for displaying Assyrian sculptures, is in temperature and ventilation far from suited to the uses of a reading-room and library, to which it has been put for the past twenty-four years. The Divinity School will in fact have occupied Haskell for quite a quarter of a century when, on the completion of the new theological group, it leaves the Museum for a home of its own.

The announcement of a gift of two hundred thousand dollars to provide a building for theological education was made in connection with the University's Quarter-Centennial, which was the Divinity School's Semi-Centennial, celebration. This was soon followed by the gift of fifty thousand dollars by Mrs. Joseph Bond to provide, in connection with the new building, a Divinity Chapel in memory of her husband, Mr. Joseph Bond, who had been a trustee of the Divinity School. While both these gifts were presently paid into the Univeristy treasury, the coming of the war and the unfavorable building conditions which followed it have postponed the erection of these buildings until now. But this delay has given the architects, Coolidge and Hodgdon, time to mature their plans, until they have developed designs of really extraordinary interest and beauty.

The theological building is to stand directly north of Haskell, facing north on the main quadrangle and fronting Kent Chemical Laboratory. It will thus be in line with Walker and Rosenwald, forming with those buildings the south side of the main quadrangle. It will also complete the Harper Quadrangle, already the stateliest part of the University, and both the theological building and the buildings already built in that quadrangle will probably gain considerably in effect from this completeness. The west end of the new building will be directly in front of the main entrance of Cobb, the "C" bench being perhaps halfway between the two buildings. A bridge will connect the library floor of the new building with the third floor of Haskell and so with the reading-room floor of Harper Memorial Library, thus adding one more link to the unparalleled series of library reading-rooms which are gradually being grouped about Harper and the Harper Quadrangle.

The architectural style of the new group is that which the same architects have already followed so successfully in the Law School, Harper, Classics, and Ida Noyes Hall, all buildings of remarkable beauty and distinction. The same skilful adjustment of wall and window spaces, the same richness and yet restraint of treatment, the same intelligence in the use of Gothic moldings characterize the new group.



THE THEOLOGY BUILDING AND BOND CHAPEL
Model Viewed from the Northwest

THE THEOLOGY BUILDING AND BOND CHAPEL
Model Viewed from the Southeast

The theological building will have a front of one hundred and thirty feet on the main quadrangle, its longest depth north and south being one hundred and twenty feet. In height it will correspond with Rosenwald, its nearest neighbor on the east. Its front will be enriched with three shallow bays or oriels two stories in height, each flanked by buttresses. Similar oriels decorate the east and west fronts of the building. The main entrance will be in the middle of the north front of the building, but there will be other entrances, two opening from the cloister on the west of the South wing, and one at the south end just beside the Haskell bridge. The first floor will contain the dean's office, the editorial offices of the various journals edited by the Divinity Faculty, and other offices of administration. There will be a lecture room twenty-two feet by forty-three, and in the south wing of the building a men's common room, twenty-two feet by forty.

On the second floor, the main part of the building will be devoted to class and seminar rooms of various sizes, with a women's common room sixteen feet by twenty-four, and the south wing will be given up to library stack, designed especially to serve the theological reading room above it which occupies the whole upper part of that wing. This reading-room will be seventy-two feet long and thirty-two feet wide. It will be finished into the roof, with timbering reminiscent of the quaint college libraries of Oxford. The main part of the third floor will be devoted to offices and seminar rooms, with an exhibit room for religious education materials. On the fourth floor there will be a few small offices, and rooms for organized play and other special purposes.

While the theological building is the main feature of the new group, three other features in it may be distinguished, the bridge, the cloister, and the chapel. The bridge which is to connect the reading-room of the new building with the third floor of Haskell and also with that of Harper is really a little building by itself. It contains one or two offices and a staircase which is accessible from either building and may, if occasion demands, serve as a fire escape from either. The bridge is carefully distinguished in architectural feeling from the new building, perhaps by way of softening the transition from the Gothic of Mr. Coolidge to that of Mr. Cobb. Certainly the new bridge is a beautiful and striking feature of the new group.

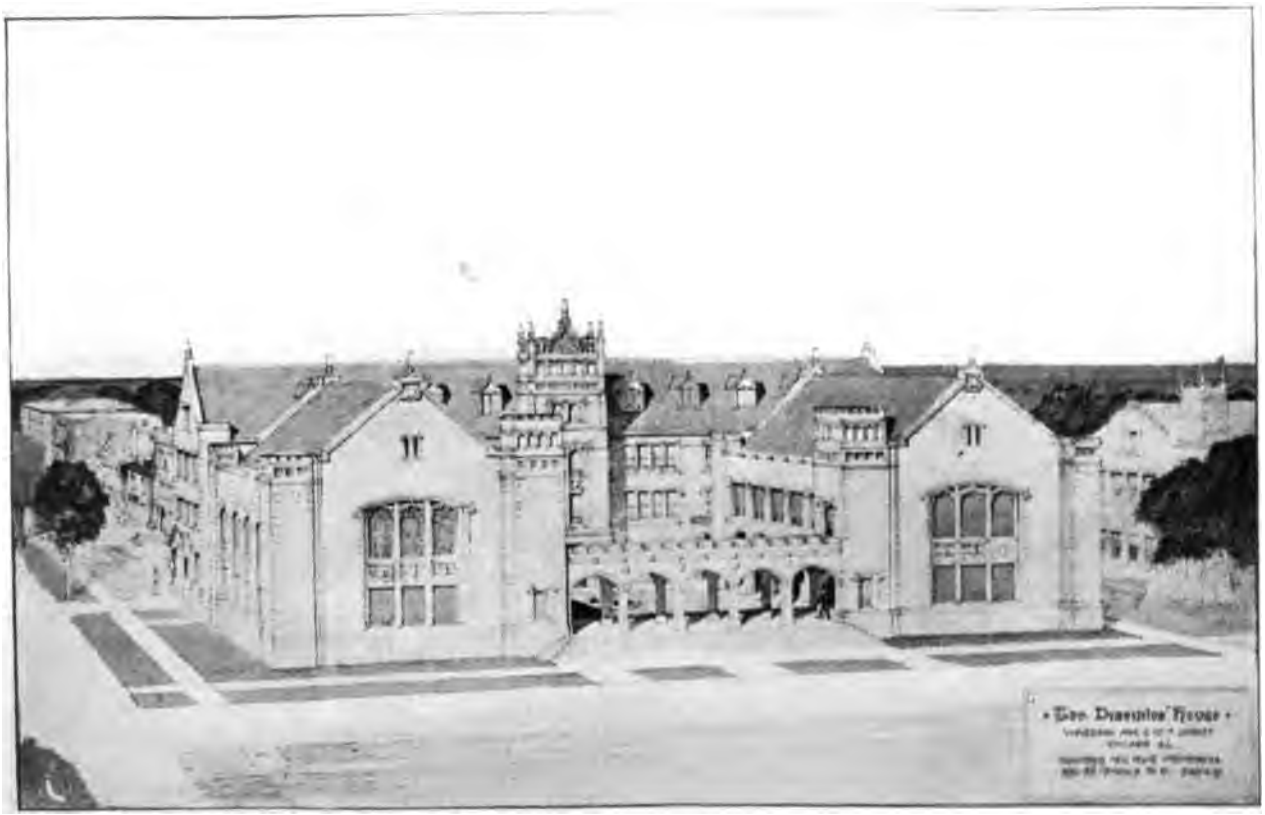
The cloister serves to connect the Divinity Chapel with the theological building. It will inclose a little quadrangle thirty-six feet square, in the angle formed by the south and west parts of the main building. While in extreme dimensions the cloister is only forty-eight by seventy feet it will be notable for the delicacy and beauty of its tracery and will

give the whole group an atmosphere of intimacy and charm. It is the custom in the Divinity School for the dean and the speaker of the morning accompanied by members of the Faculty and sometimes by the choir, to enter and to leave chapel in procession. In the new group, this procession will form in the dean's anteroom, pass through the main hallway and the south corridor of the theological building, proceed through the cloister to the cloister door on the north side of the chapel, enter the chapel, and pass up the main aisle to the stalls on the chancel platform.

Chapel attendance in the Divinity School is voluntary, and is sometimes large and sometimes small. For larger meetings the University already has Mandel Hall and for great occasions it will soon have the Founder's Chapel on Woodlawn Avenue. The task of the designers of the Divinity Chapel has been to provide an appropriate place for a small group of worshipers and hearers. The room will accommodate two hundred people, with places for twenty-five or thirty others in the chancel stalls. Its walls will be paneled to a height of twelve feet from the floor. Above that level they will be finished in Bedford stone. A series of tall traceried windows will run completely around the room. Those at the east and west ends of the building will be especially rich and large, measuring sixteen feet in width and twenty-one in height. The roof will be timbered. The chapel will measure eighty-four feet in length, twenty-eight feet in width, and forty-two feet in height, inside.

The chapel will be a characteristic example of the English collegiate type, and will be most advantageously situated, being practically centered on the north side of the quadrangle between Haskell and the Divinity Halls. From the south, the chapel will appear almost detached from the higher buildings around it, and its beautifully symmetrical proportions will be seen to the greatest advantage. Its east front however is its richest feature, for here the great east window and the formal entrance below it are united by an elaborate scheme of Gothic panels and niches into one great screen of glass and stone.

Standing upon the cornerstone of Haskell Museum in 1895 Dr. John Henry Barrows said: "A century hence the Haskell Oriental Museum now rising will be surrounded by groups of academic buildings that shall repeat many of the glories so dear to Oxford." Twenty-five years have passed and already Dr. Barrows' words are finding their fulfilment. And in none of our buildings will the Oxford atmosphere of tranquil beauty be more evident than in the delightful group of hall and chapel, bridge and cloister, in which the manifold theological agencies of the University are to center.



THE DISCIPLES DIVINITY HOUSE
(Projected Plan)

THE DISCIPLES DIVINITY HOUSE

This institution is organically connected with the Divinity School of the University, its purpose being the promotion and organization of graduate divinity studies for members of the Disciples communion. It was organized in 1894 and was the first of the denominational Houses allied with the University. It has not been the purpose of the Disciples Divinity House to provide a theological curriculum. It seeks rather to supply courses in the history, literature, polity, and ideals of the Disciples to members of that body and others engaged in graduate work in the Divinity School. In the course of its history more than three hundred Disciples have been registered in the Divinity School, a considerable proportion of whom have taken one or more of the courses in the Disciples Divinity House.

The work of the House is conducted under the direction of a Board of Trustees who administer its funds, own its property, and select its instructional force. Up to the present time the classes of the Divinity House have been held in the classrooms of the Divinity School, and the members have occupied rooms in the Divinity Halls or elsewhere as opportunity offered. It has been the consistent purpose, however, of the trustees to provide a physical equipment for the institution as soon as sufficient funds can be secured. That plan is soon to be put into operation.

The Divinity House has a property one hundred and seventy-five feet on the north side of Fifty-seventh Street and University Avenue, extending one hundred and fifty feet north on the latter street. The buildings will be located on this site. The temporary structure of the Hyde Park Church of the Disciples will be removed and its permanent building erected there. On the east side of the site the main building of the Divinity House will be placed. This will include quarters for classrooms, offices, library, and other space.

Along the northern side of the property and in a measure connecting the other two buildings will extend the dormitory. This will be a valuable contribution to the housing facilities of the Divinity School for single men, as it will be available for any members of the Divinity School after the needs of the Disciples have been met. It is not certain that this building will be erected as soon as the other two, for which the need is more imperative. When these structures are completed in harmony with the general requirements of the University environment they should be an attractive and valuable addition to the complex of buildings constituting the University and its immediate surroundings.

THE CHICAGO THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY

The group of buildings designed for the use of Chicago Theological Seminary in its new location near the University of Chicago is to be placed on the north side of Fifty-eighth Street between University and Woodlawn avenues. The two lots are separated by an alley, across which the plans show a bridge, which, while desirable, is not essential. The frontage on University Avenue is 100 feet, on Woodlawn Avenue, 50 feet. The total frontage on Fifty-eighth Street is 268 feet.

The buildings have been designed in colonial style. The material to be used is red brick with stone trimmings. It is fortunate that the house which the Seminary now occupies and which was built by Professor William Gardner Hale is in the finest colonial style. This is appropriate to the history and purpose of a Congregational seminary, and the new designs have been keyed to this dignified and useful building.

The plan of the entire group naturally divides itself into three portions: the western, devoted to the purposes of residence and administration; the central, containing the library and assembly hall; the eastern, which is the house for the President. It is not the intention to imply the immediate construction of the whole group, but rather to indicate a comprehensive plan suitable to the ultimate needs of the Seminary.

Both dwellings are now in use. The new buildings will be erected at the earliest moment when funds shall have been secured. Besides the offices for administration and a social center, the residential section will furnish rooms for about seventy students. In the new buildings only single rooms will be constructed; in the house now occupied the larger rooms will continue to be assigned to more than one occupant. A kitchen will be provided merely to furnish facilities for the serving of refreshments on social occasions.

The central unit of the group, across the alley from the dormitories, comprises the library and assembly hall and will be called Graham Taylor Hall. The collections of Hammond Library are to be devoted to the sources of the religious history of the Middle West and especially to the development of the Congregational churches in this territory. A house library of reference books and current volumes in theology will

THE CHICAGO THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY
(Projected Plan)

also be kept here. The assembly hall will be used for gatherings under the auspices of the Seminary and will seat about one hundred and twenty-five people. It probably will be in the simple style of the colonial meeting-house.

The eastern unit is the President's residence. It is designed to harmonize with the rest of the group and to give satisfactory accommodation to a family of average size. It meets the building line on both streets and is separated from the library by a garden which gives all the privacy possible to a city dwelling.

RYDER DIVINITY HOUSE

The Church of St. Paul's on the Midway (Universalist) was organized as St. Paul's Church in June, 1836. Its first building was erected in 1844 near the corner of Washington and Clark streets. A second edifice (1857) at Van Buren Street and Wabash Avenue was burned in the great fire (1871). The third building was erected at Wabash Avenue and Sixteenth Street in 1872. The fourth structure was built in 1888 at Prairie Avenue and Thirtieth. The present structure, the fifth used by the church, was dedicated January 6, 1918 and was designed by Coolidge and Hodgdon who have sought to make it somewhat reminiscent of the first building. The Reverend William H. Ryder, D.D., held the pastorate of St. Paul's longer than any other minister, and the Ryder Divinity House is named in honor of his memory.

Ryder Divinity School, a Universalist organization, is a department of Lombard College at Galesburg, Illinois. This divinity school was moved to Chicago and allied to the University of Chicago in 1912. In 1919 the present group of buildings at the corner of Sixtieth Street and Dorchester Avenue was completed and occupied. Back of the Church of St. Paul's on the Midway is a large building used for Sunday school and other purposes. This is a very busy community center which furnishes an excellent school for observation and practice in actual church and parish problems and opinions. Adjacent are the residence of the Dean and the dormitory for students. The Swan Library occupies the space between the dormitory and the community building, which is also used for classrooms.

The whole plant is always open for inspection by any members of the University. Ryder Divinity House desires also to render loyal service to the great institution which so generously extends her wonderful privileges to the allied organizations.

ST. PAUL'S ON THE MIDWAY AND RYDER DIVINITY HOUSE

PROPOSED MEADVILLE HOUSE
57th STREET AND WOODLAWN AVENUE
CHICAGO ILLINOIS

THE PROPOSED MEADVILLE HOUSE IN CHICAGO

By REV. RICHARD WILSON BOYNTON
Chairman of the Special Committee of the Board of Trustees of the Meadville Theological School on the Erection of the Chicago House

The Unitarian denomination in the United States depends upon three schools of theological learning for the recruiting of its ministry. The oldest of these is the Divinity School of Harvard University. This was founded in 1816 and endowed by Unitarians, though for the past thirty years or more it has been a part of the University and nonsectarian. It receives students of all Protestant denominations, chiefly for postgraduate study, but each year a number of its graduates still enter Unitarian pulpits. The youngest of the three schools is the Pacific Unitarian School for the Ministry, established in 1904 at Berkeley, California, and, like the schools of other denominations there, working in close harmony and co-operation with the University of California. The third institution for the training of Unitarian ministers is the Meadville Theological School.

This school was founded in 1844 at Meadville, in northwestern Pennsylvania. Its buildings, set in an ample and beautiful campus, crown a hill toward the eastern edge of the city of twenty thousand inhabitants. It has always had an able and scholarly faculty, never more so than at the present time. The school received students of all denominations on equal terms, a provision of its charter being that "no doctrinal test shall ever be made a condition of enjoying any of the opportunities of instruction." Planned originally to furnish missionaries for the then pioneer West in its earlier years students of the Christian connection shared its privileges; but for the last half-century or more practically all its graduates have been Unitarians. The school has just been celebrating, on June 1, 2, and 3, with appropriate academic and historical exercises, its seventy-fifth anniversary, postponed from 1919 because of conditions growing out of the world-war.

As a small and comparatively isolated institution, with Allegheny College on a neighboring hill, but apart from the larger centers of learning, Meadville has long done effective work. To its theological courses it

has added provision for Junior students, of undergraduate rank, and more recently courses for parish assistants and leaders in religious education. Women have always been received on a complete equality with men. In recent years, however, the need has been urgently felt of giving its students the wider contacts with learning and with life that can be found only in a great university and a metropolitan city.

It was obvious that Chicago and the University of Chicago offered what Meadville lacked, and the generous cordiality and hospitality of the University authorities paved the way for a co-operative arrangement whereby Meadville professors should lecture during the Summer Quarter in the University lecture-rooms, and a group of Meadville students should avail themselves for a few weeks annually of the facilities of the University halls and dormitories. This arrangement, now to be carried out for the sixth summer, led directly to the project for building a Meadville House in the University district, which is now in course of realization.

The gift, by Hon. Morton D. Hull of Chicago, chairman of the Board of Trustees of the Meadville Theological School, of an ample building lot, at the corner of Woodlawn Avenue and Fifty-seventh Street, diagonally across from the First Unitarian Church, was the first important step. A committee, appointed to secure funds and erect the building, procured suitable plans from Mr. Harold L. Olmsted, architect, of Buffalo, New York, whose perspective drawing of the proposed Meadville House accompanies this article. It is estimated that the House will cost, furnished, between $100,000 and $125,000. In design it will be congruous with the church diagonally opposite and with the buildings of the University.

The front portion, first and second story, is planned as a home for the Meadville professor residing permanently in Chicago and in charge of the work of the house. In the rear on the first floor will be a handsome library, intended to serve as a place for social gatherings, not only for the Meadville group but also for Unitarian students in all departments of the University. On the first floor, also, will be a lecture-room and office. Above, in the rear, will be the dormitory for students; the entire third floor also being given over to this purpose. In all between twenty and twenty-five students can be accommodated. Ample provision is made for bathrooms and shower baths.

It is confidently hoped that building operations may begin in the spring of 1921, and the house be pushed rapidly to completion. The United Unitarian Drive, for several million dollars, now in process of

organization, will provide for the Meadville House in Chicago as one of its foremost objects. The friends of Meadville rejoice in the prospect, not only that its students will enjoy the great advantage of spending a portion of each year in Chicago—all its collegiate work being done there, and its graduates urged to take their postgraduate courses at the University of Chicago, but also that the Meadville group, with its earnest, loyal, open-minded spirit, may more and more make a place for itself as one of the many allied institutions that are coming to gather about this truly great and far-shining seat of humane learning. The work at Meadville itself will be in no way curtailed but rather supplemented and expanded by the larger opportunities which the Meadville House in Chicago will be able to offer.

THE ONE HUNDRED AND SIXTEENTH CONVOCATION

The One Hundred and Sixteenth Convocation of the University of Chicago was held in Hutchinson Court at four o'clock on the afternoon of June the fifteenth. The Convocation Address by David Prescott Barrows, Ph.D., University of Chicago, 1897, President of the University of California, is printed in this issue of the *University Record*. The President's Convocation Statement is also included in this issue.

The award of honors was as follows: Honorable Mention for excellence in the work of the Junior Colleges: Theodore Krehbiel Ahrens, Frank Howard Anderson, Louise Bonstedt Apt, Dorothy Beatrice Augur, Phyllis Baker, Foster King Ballard, Robert McLaren Barnes, Charles Albert Beckwith, Harry Lewis Bird, Jr., Donald Frederic Bond, Gordon Willson Bonner, Burtis Arthur Bradley, James Cekan, Robert Edward Collins, Blair Coursen, Edith Pearl Crawshaw, Paul Edgar Crowder, Frances Elaine Crozier, Miles Edward Cunat, Paul Albon Davis, Harold De Baun, Ruth Nellie Drake, Cedric George Dredge, Edith Corinne Eberhart, Edmond Isaac Eger, Arthur Theodore Fathauer, Carroll Lane Fenton, Richard Foster Flint, Harry Friedman, Robert Hermann Gasch, John Joseph Gunther, Amy Marjorie Gustafson, William Charles Harder, III, John George Harms, Ray Nelson Haskell, Wilbur Jackson Hatch, Virginia Hibben, Emanuel Henry Hildebrandt, Alex Lester Hillman, Mary Josephine Hoke, Carolyn Stokes Hoyt, Harry Victor Hume, Pao-Chun I, Carl Helge, Mauritz Janson, Frieda Kaplowitz, Leonard Field Kellogg, Jr., Harold Dwight Lasswell, Charles Ernest Lee, Meyer Leo Leventhal, George Helenus Lust, Elizabeth Louise Martin, Charles James Merriam, Helen Isabelle Mills, George Edward Morris, Donald Christopher Morrison, Alfred Livingston McCartney, Samuel Henry Nerlove, Marie Vivian Niergarth, Harry Nevins Omer, Miriam Ormsby, Valeska Pfeiffer, Mila Ione Pierce, Israel Rappoport, Elwood Goodrich Ratcliff, Louis Philip River, Jr., Theodore Rosenak, Mary Arnie Ruminer, Heyworth Naylor Sanford, Amanda Charlotte Schultz, Karl Edwin Seyfarth, Lorraine Lucas Sinton, Ruth Marian Skinner, Ralph Laverne Small, Mariam June Stadelmann, Brenton Wallace Stevenson, Helen Graff Strauss, Dorothy Victoria Sugden, Thane Taylor Swartz, Carolyn Elizabeth Thompson,

Otmar Thurlimann, Sarah Sheldon Tower, Adelaide Marie Werner, Effie Mae Wills, Alexander Wolf, Arnold Lewis Yates. Honorable Mention for excellence in the work leading to the Certificate of the College of Education: Greta Benedict, Edith Marguerite Colwell, Florence Althea Foxwell, Genevieve Fern Michell, Adelia Inez Mullen. Scholarships in the Senior Colleges for excellence in the work of the Junior Colleges: Frank Howard Anderson, *Political Economy;* Dorothy Beatrice Augur, *Household Administration;* Robert McLaren Barnes, *Physics;* Charles Albert Beckwith, *Chemistry;* Margery Alice Ellis, *Romance;* Richard Foster Flint, *Geology;* John Joseph Gunther, *English;* Amy Marjorie Gustafson, *History;* Ray Nelson Haskell, *Mathematics;* Emanuel Henry Hildebrandt, *German;* Leora Adeline Jannsen, *Sociology;* Sibyl Eleanor Kemp, *Education;* Harold Dwight Lasswell, *Political Science;* Elizabeth Louise Martin, *Geography;* Israel Rappoport, *Romance;* Dorothy Victoria Sugden, *Greek;* Enid Townley, *Geology;* Robert Joseph West, *Botany;* Thomas Winfrey Woodman, *Physiology.* The Joseph Triner Scholarship in Chemistry: Adrian Rezny. The Julius Rosenwald Prize for excellence in Oratory: David Mandel Halfant, *first;* George Dewey Mills, *second.* The Florence James Adams Prize for excellence in Artistic Reading: Ernest Robert Trattner, *first;* Eve Marie Kohl, *second.* The Milo P. Jewett Prize for excellence in Bible Reading: Ralph Warren Hoffman. The David Blair McLaughlin Prize for excellence in the Writing of English Prose: Margaret Lenora Runbeck. The Conference Medal for excellence in Athletics and Scholarship: Charles Graham Higgins. Scholarships in the Senior Colleges for excellence in the work of the first three years of the College course: Isabel Allen, *Latin;* Samuel King Allison, *Chemistry;* Maurice DeKoven, *Philosophy;* Mary Amanda Gingrich, *Sociology;* Joseph Bates Hall, *Political Economy;* Harold Lewis Hanisch, *Political Science;* Ben Herzberg, *Geology;* Dorothy Evelynne Huebner, *Botany;* Leila Loretto Lydon, *Physiology;* Louise MacNeal, *Household Administration;* Esther Frances Marhofer, *Romance;* Sydney Kaufman Schiff, *History;* Lloyd Schmiedeskamp, *Physics;* Isaac Schour, *Mathematics;* Mary Lillian Stevenson, *Education.* The Bachelor's Degree with Honors: Arthur Maurice Abraham, Herman Harbor Allen, Leona Celeste Bachrach, Lillian Dorothy Bargquist, Emmet Blackburn Bay, Martha Nash Behrendt, Ramona Bressie, Edith Brown, Fred Temple Burling, Mary Lucile Carney, Lyman Chalkley, Jr., Arthur Cohen, Madeleine Isabel Cohn, Lillian Grove Davis, Thomas Parker Dudley, Jr., Frank Lowell Dunn, Iva Maud Dunn, Margaret Durkin, Nicholas Augustine

Fegen, Ruth Ray Finkelstein, Edythe Louise Flack, Lloyd Ramoan Flora, August French, Katharine Elizabeth Gerhart, Margaret Cecil Haggott, Mary Drew Hardy, Anna Louise Henne, Arnold John Hoffmann, Mildred Julia Janovsky, Helen Anna Jirak, J. Kenneth Kemp, Rose Jones Kessing, Daniel John Korn, Leonie Gertrude Krocker, Genieve Amelia Whitcomb Lamson, Eleanor Lyne, Grace Susan Mason, Irene Raymond Marsh, Grant Stanard Mears, Stuart Putnam Meech, Irvin Charles Mollison, Sara Elinor Moore, Florence MacNeal, Bessie McCoy, Marjorie Louise Neill, James Mount Nicely, Matthew Thomas O'Neill, Margaret Lucy Park, Effie Louise Pratt, Robert Redfield, Jr., Anne Critchell Rimington, Isabel Jordan Robinson, Joseph Rosofsky Rose, Hazel Emily Schmidt, George Joseph Serck, Eloise Ruth Shaw, Edward Sherry, Ella Thea Smith, Arthur H. Steinhaus, George Dumas Stout, Joseph Raymond Thomas, Gladys Titsworth, Lucia Elizabeth Tower, Blanche Carlisle Troeger, Simon Harry Tulchin, Dorothy Elizabeth Van Pelt, Marian Schuyler Vogdes, Nona Jessie Walker, Elizabeth M. Weick, Milton Louis Weiskopf, Arthur Wolf, Wallace Florin Worthley, Hertha Anna Wyman, Margaret Duff Yates, Agnes Clare Yutzey, Maria Zichova. Honors for excellence in particular departments of the Senior Colleges: Arthur Maurice Abraham, *History and Political Science;* Arthur Maurice Abraham, *Law;* Herman Harbor Allen, *Romance;* Herman Harbor Allen, *German;* Leona Celeste Bachrach, *Political Economy;* Emmet Blackburn Bay, *Anatomy;* Martha Nash Behrendt, *French;* Ramona Bressie, *History;* Ramona Bressie, *English;* Edith Brown, *English;* Fred Temple Burling, *Anatomy;* Sister Mary Alberto Carbery, *English;* Mary Lucile Carney, *Mathematics;* Lyman Chalkley, Jr., *Chemistry;* Arthur Cohen, *Chemistry;* Lillian Grove Davis, *English;* Frank Lowell Dunn, *Chemistry;* Margaret Durkin, *English;* Nicholas Augustine Fegen, *English;* Ruth Ray Finkelstein, *Romance;* Lloyd Ramoan Flora, *Political Economy;* Mary Ellen Freeman, *Home Economics and Household Art;* August French, *Chemistry;* Katharine Elizabeth Gerhart, *Romance;* Margaret Cecil Haggott, *English;* Anna Louise Henne, *History;* Arnold John Hoffmann, *Political Economy;* Mildred Julia Janovsky, *Political Economy;* Helen Anna Jirak, *History;* Rose Jones Kessing, *Mathematics;* Daniel John Korn, *Law;* Harry Kraus, *General Literature;* Genieve Amelia Whitcomb Lamson, *English;* Adah Lucile Lee, *Political Economy;* Eleanor Lyne, *English;* Irene Raymond Marsh, *Kindergarten and Primary Education;* Grace Susan Mason, *History;* Grant Stanard Mears, *Political Economy;* Stuart Putnam Meech, *Political Economy;* Ray Will Metcalf, *Chemistry;*

Irvin Charles Mollison, *History;* Robert Latour Muckley, *Philosophy;* Lola Belle McCollough, *English;* Bessie McCoy, *English;* Florence MacNeal, *Political Economy;* Marjorie Louise Neill, *Spanish;* James Mount Nicely, *English;* Matthew Thomas O'Neill, *Romance;* Margaret Lucy Park, *Russian;* Effie Louise Pratt, *German;* Robert Redfield, Jr., *Law;* Frances Reinmann, *English;* Joseph Rosofsky Rose, *History;* George Joseph Serck, *Political Economy;* Ella Thea Smith, *Botany;* George Dumas Stout, *Latin;* Gladys Titsworth, *Home Economics and Household Art;* Blanche Carlisle Troeger, *History and Geography;* Simon Harry Tulchin, *Psychology;* Simon Harry Tulchin, *Sociology;* Dorothy Elizabeth Van Pelt, *Botany;* Marian Schuyler Vodges, *Latin;* Elizabeth M. Weick, *History;* Arthur Wolf, *Law;* Wallace Florin Worthley, *Botany and Zoölogy;* Hertha Anna Wyman, *Home Economics;* Margaret Duff Yates, *English;* Chi-Sun Yeh, *Physics;* Dwight Brookie Yoder, *Political Economy;* Maria Zichova, *German;* Maria Zichova, *History.* Scholarships in the Graduate Schools for excellence in the work of the Senior Colleges: Leona Celeste Bachrach, *Sociology;* Blanche Beatrice Boyer, *Greek;* Arthur Cohen, *Chemistry;* Samuel Jacob Jacobsohn, *Mathematics;* Richard Anderson Jones, *Geology;* Genieve Amelia Whitcomb Lamson, *Geography;* Walter Ferdinand Loehwing, *Botany;* Helen Beatrice Rislow, *Physiology;* James John Toigo, *History;* Mabel Toles, *Romance;* Marion White, *Household Administration.* Election to the Chicago Chapter of the Order of the Coif on nomination by the Faculty of the Law School for high distinction in the professional work of the Law School: Harry Blitzsten, Samuel Chutkow, William Turney Fox, Esther Harrie Jaffe, Katherine Biggins Magill, Roswell Foster Magill, James Allen Miller, Harold William Norman. Election as associate members to Sigma Xi on nomination of two Departments of Science, for evidence of promise of ability in research work in Science: Samuel King Allison, Arthur Cohen; election of members of Sigma Xi: John Morris Arthur, Fred William Geise, James Nelson Gowanlock, Earl Henry Hall, John Hobart Hoskins, Horace Clifford Levinson, John Robert Magness, John Preston Minton, Harry Wyatt Richey, Janet Elizabeth Robertson, Pranis Baltras Sivickis, Constance Wiener, John Woodard. Election of members to the Beta of Illinois Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa: Josephine Haswell Ardrey, Leona Celeste Bachrach (June, '19), Emmet Blackburn Bay, Ramona Bressie (June, '19), Arthur Cohen (December, '19), Madeleine Isabel Cohn (June, '19), Frank Lowell Dunn, Katharine Elizabeth Gerhart, Margaret Cecil Haggott, Arnold John Hoffmann, Dorothy Evelynne Huebner, Mildred Julia Janovsky,

Mary Elizabeth Link, Eleanor Lyne, Grace Susan Mason, Stuart Putnam Meech, Irvin Charles Mollison, Sara Elinor Moore, Bertha Beatrice Needham, Marjorie Louise Neill, Harold Elliott Nicely, James Mount Nicely, Walter Cade Reckless, Robert Redfield, Jr., Sydney Kaufman Schiff, George Joseph Serck, Ella Thea Smith, Mary Lillian Stevenson, George Dumas Stout (December, '19), Blanche Carlisle Troeger, Marian Schuyler Vogdes (June, '19), Margaret Duff Yates, Maria Zichova. The Howard Taylor Ricketts Prize for research in Pathology: Ivan Clifford Hall. The Mr. and Mrs. Frank G. Logan Research Fellowship in Bacteriology: Robert Spalding Spray. The National Research Fellowship in Physics, provided by the Rockefeller Foundation: Leonard Benedict Loeb. The National Research Fellowship in Chemistry, provided by the Rockefeller Foundation: Morris Kharasch.

Degrees were conferred as follows: Bachelor of Arts, 8; Bachelor of Philosophy, 288; Bachelor of Science, 92; Bachelor of Divinity, 5; Bachelor of Laws, 6; Doctor of Law (J.D.), 46; Master of Arts, 67; Master of Science, 18; Doctor of Philosophy, 21.

During the academic year 1919–20 the following titles, certificates, and degrees have been conferred:

The Certificate of the Two Years' Course in the college of Education	31
The Degree of Bachelor of Arts, Philosophy, or Science	582
The Degree of Bachelor of Arts, Philosophy, or Science, in Education	105
The Degree of Bachelor of Laws	9
The Degree of Master of Arts in the Divinity School	32
The Degree of Master of Arts or Science in the Graduate Schools	154
The Degree of Bachelor of Divinity	7
The Degree of Doctor of Law (J.D.)	65
The Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Divinity School	5
The Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate Schools	60

The Convocation Prayer Service was held in the Reynolds Club Sunday morning, June 13, at 10:30. The Convocation Religious Service was held in Mandel Hall at 11:00 A.M., the sermon being preached by the Reverend James Gore King McClure, D.D., LL.D., President of McCormick Theological Seminary.

The Convocation Reception was held Monday evening, June 14, in the Tower Group of Buildings. Those in the receiving line were President and Mrs. Harry Pratt Judson, President and Mrs. David Prescott Barrows, Dean and Mrs. James Rowland Angell.

The Beta of Illinois Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa held its annual meeting at four o'clock Thursday, June 10, in the assembly room of the Classics Building. After the report of the Secretary and Executive Committee had been received the President, Professor David Allan

Robertson initiated the following candidates: Josephine Hasell Ardrey, Leona Celeste Bachrach, Emmet Blackburn Bay, Ramona Bressie, Arthur Cohen, Madeleine Isabel Cohn, Frank Lowell Dunn, Katharine Elizabeth Gerhart, Margaret Cecil Haggott, Arnold John Hoffmann, Dorothy Evelynne Heubner, Mildred Julia Janovsky, Mary Elizabeth Link, Eleanor Lyne, Grace Susan Mason, Stuart Putnam Meech, Irvin Charles Mollison, Sara Elinor Moore, Bertha Beatrice Needham, Marjorie Louise Neill, Harold Elliott Nicely, James Mount Nicely, Walter Cade Reckless, Robert Redfield, Jr., Sydney Kaufman Schiff, George Joseph Serck, Ella Thea Smith, Mary Lillian Stevenson, George Dumas Stout, Blanche Carlisle Troeger, Marian Schuyler Vogdes, Margaret Duff Yates, Maria Zichova. The officers for the ensuing year are elected as follows: President, Professor Andrew Cunningham McLaughlin; Vice-President, Professor Henry Chandler Cowles; Secretary, Dr. Harvey B. Lemon. Additional members of the Executive Committee are George W. Sherburn, Mrs. Irene Tufts Mead. The annual dinner of the chapter was held in the Quadrangle Club at 6:30 P.M., Monday, June 14. Immediately after the dinner, which was attended by sixty persons, the chapter reassembled in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall to hear the Phi Beta Kappa oration, which was delivered by Edwin Emery Slosson, Ph.D., University of Chicago, 1902, Managing Editor of *The Independent*. Dr. Slosson's address is printed on page 174 of the *University Record*.

Even the Republican Convention in session in Chicago did not interfere with the success of the several features of the Alumni Reunion on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday. The University Sing on Friday night was the usual great success. The Alumni Dinner on Saturday evening was attended by three hundred sixty-eight persons. A new feature of the program was a School of Education alumni dinner Friday, June 11.

On the evening of Convocation Day, Tuesday, June 15, members of the University joined in a dinner in honor of Dean and Mrs. James Rowland Angell. Professor Angell, having accepted the presidency of the Carnegie Corporation, has resigned his position as Dean of the Faculties of Arts, Literature, and Science and Head of the Department of Psychology. The dinner was held at seven-thirty in the refectory of Ida Noyes Hall. President Harry Pratt Judson presided. On behalf of the scientific Faculties an address was made by Professor A. A. Michelson. For the Faculties of Arts and Literature Professor James Haydon Tufts was spokesman. After a tribute from President Judson Dean Angell spoke in response to the addresses of the evening.

EVENTS: PAST AND FUTURE

THE RENAISSANCE SOCIETY

Officers of the Renaissance Society for the year 1919–20 were elected at the meeting November 11, 1919, as follows: president, Mr. Gordon J. Laing; vice-presidents, Mr. Horace S. Fiske, Mr. J. C. M. Hanson, Mr. Lorado Taft, Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson, Mr. David Robertson; secretary, Mrs. Henry Gordon Gale; treasurer, Mr. Walter A. Payne; executive committee, Mr. Walter Sargent, Mr. James A. Field, Miss Antoinette Hollister, Miss Elizabeth Wallace, Mr. Barrett Spach.

The activities of the Society have been these: November 11, lecture on Hindu painting by Dr. Ananda Coomeraswamy, curator of Indian art, Boston Museum; December 8, private view of the work of George Bellows on exhibition at the Art Institute; private view of the exhibition of American paintings and sculpture with a talk by Professor Sargent; January 15, lecture on "Masaccio and Realism," by Professor Frank J. Mather, of Princeton University; January 19–30, exhibition of the sculpture of Alfeo Faggi, with an explanatory talk on the opening day by Mr. Richard Offner; January 25, a visit to the Ryerson collection at Mr. Ryerson's residence; February 25 to March 5, exhibition of the sculpture of Albin Polasek, with a talk by Mr. Polasek on the opening day; March 8–20, exhibition of a group of five Italian primitives, with a lecture by Mr. Offner on the opening day; March 12, President and Mrs. Judson opened their house to the Society for an illustrated lecture by Dr. Frank W. Gunsaulus on "The Gospel According to Rembrandt"; April 14, lecture on "Rembrandt," by Dr. A. J. Barnouw, Queen Wilhelmina Lecturer at Columbia University; April 26, lecture on "Bill Boards, a National Menace and a National Curse," by Joseph Pennell.

On June 8 the annual meeting was held and officers for the year 1920–21 were elected as follows: president, Mr. Edgar J. Goodspeed; vice-presidents, Mrs. W. A. Nitze, Miss Elizabeth Wallace, Mr. G. A. Bliss, Mr. Shailer Mathews, Mr. C. W. Wright; secretary, Mrs. C. H. Beeson; treasurer, Mr. J. A. Field; executive committee: Miss Helen Gardner, Miss Antoinette B. Hollister, Mr. G. J. Laing, Mr. Walter Sargent, Mr. Ferdinand Schevill.

GENERAL ITEMS

Mr. and Mrs. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., and members of their family visited President and Mrs. Harry Pratt Judson Monday, May 31. After luncheon at the President's house the guests were entertained by members of the Women's Athletic Association by a baseball game and by a swimming meet.

Ernest Hatch Wilkins, Professor of Romance Languages, received the degree of Doctor of Letters from his Alma Mater, Amherst College, at the recent Commencement.

Announcement is just made from New York that President Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago, and Professor Andrew Cunningham McLaughlin, Head of the Department of History in the same institution, have accepted invitations to serve on the Board of Electors to the Hall of Fame, New York University. As electors they will aid in selecting the men who through their contributions to society have been deemed worthy of permanent remembrance.

On May 4 the American poet, George Edward Woodberry, gave a William Vaughn Moody Lecture at the University of Chicago, his subject being "Longfellow." Mr. Woodberry, who for many years was professor of comparative literature at Columbia University, has written a two-volume life of Edgar Allen Poe and a volume on *The Inspiration of Poetry*, and is the editor of the collected poems of Rupert Brooke.

Count Vincent de Wierzbicki, of the French High Commission, lectured at the University of Chicago on June 2. The subject of the lecture, which was given in the Harper Memorial Library, was "La littérature de guerre en France."

Professor Albert Feuillerat, of the University of Rennes, France, who is visiting professor at Yale this year, gave two lectures at the University of Chicago on May 5 and 7. The first lecture was on "Some Principles of Artistic Construction in Shakspere's Plays," and the second, which was in French, had as its subject "Two French-American Poets." Professor Feuillerat is an authority on the history of the English theater in Shakspere's time.

The Thirty-second Educational Conference of the Academies and High Schools in relations with the University of Chicago was held at the University on May 13 and 14. Among the speakers at the general sessions were Dr. Marion L. Burton, the new president of the University of Michigan, and Director Charles Hubbard Judd, of the School of Education at the University of Chicago. The general topics discussed were "Adaptation of School Work to Pupils of Varying Abilities," "Selection of Teachers and Training in Service," "The Present Status of the Junior High School," and "Public-School Textbooks."

President Harry Pratt Judson presided on the evening of May 14, when President Burton, of the University of Michigan, gave the address on "The Demands of Democracy."

Departmental conferences were held on Art, Biology, Commercial Education, English, Geography, Greek and Latin, History, Home Economics, Manual Arts, Mathematics, Oral Expression, Physics and Chemistry, and Romance; and among those participating were Charles L. Hutchinson, president of the Art Institute, Chicago; Henry C. Morrison, Superintendent of the Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago; Franklin B. Snyder, professor of English, Northwestern University; Leon C. Marshall, Dean of the School of Commerce and Administration, University of Chicago; William S. Gray, Dean of the College of Education; and Albert A. Michelson, Head of the Department of Physics.

One hundred and seventy-four high schools and colleges were represented in the last Annual Conference at Chicago.

A book of remarkable significance for all who are interested in the history of science, particularly that of medicine, is just announced by the University of Chicago Press in a memorial edition—the *History and Bibliography of Anatomic Illustration*, by Ludwig Choulant, translated and revised by Dr. Mortimer Frank, of Chicago. Dr. Frank finished his task and turned the manuscript over to the publishers just before his untimely death in April, 1919. A committee of his friends has chosen this volume as a fitting memorial to Dr. Frank because of its intrinsic value as a contribution to medical science and because of his deep personal interest in making it available to his profession.

Dr. Frank's life-long study of medical history and his interest as a connoisseur in medical engravings and rare books peculiarly qualified him for this undertaking. He has made many valuable additions to the work, including two supplementary sections on "Sculpture and Painting as Modes of Anatomic Illustration," and "Anatomic Illustration since the Time of Choulant."

The volume, of four hundred and fifty pages, enriched with one hundred illustrations, is expected to be of unique value to anatomists, medical historians, and art students. The Frank Memorial Committee consists of more than twenty leading physicians of the country.

At the annual meeting of the University Orchestral Association in Harper Assembly Room at the University of Chicago, April 27, officers for the year 1920–21 were elected as follows: President, Chester W. Wright; Vice-President, Mrs. Harry Pratt Judson; Secretary-Treasurer, David A. Robertson; Directors: Mrs. Ernst Freund, Messrs. C. D. Buck, Wallace Heckman, and Walter A. Payne.

The Executive Committee has arranged for the following program for the ensuing year: Eight concerts by the Chicago Symphony Orchestra on October 19, November 9 and 23, January 11, February 1 and 15, March 8 and April 9, and two recitals by Fannie Bloomfield-Zeisler, December 14, and Mabel Garrison, April 21.

The new Alumni Directory of the University of Chicago contains an alphabetical list, addresses, and occupations of nearly 12,000 graduates; a complete geographical list, and a special class list of Bachelors, as well as interesting statistical tables. This is the first alumni directory of the University to be published in seven years.

The Howard Taylor Ricketts Prize of $250, which is awarded annually at the University of Chicago on the anniversary of Dr. Ricketts' death, was given on May 3 to Ivan C. Hall for his work entitled "Studies in Anaerobiology." The prize is awarded to the student who presents the best results in research in pathology or bacteriology.

Dr. Ricketts, who was Assistant Professor of Pathology at the University, died in Mexico from a contagion he was investigating.

Professor Thomas C. Chamberlin, until recently Head of the Department of Geology at the University of Chicago and formerly president of the University of Wisconsin, gave an address at the latter institution in April on "The Founding of the Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Letters." The address was part of the commemorative exercises celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of the Academy, of which Professor Chamberlin was one of the incorporators and later president.

Professor John M. Coulter, Head of the Department of Botany at the University of Chicago, was also one of the speakers at the celebration.

President Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago, was recently honored by the Prince Regent of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, who created him a Commander of the Order of St. Sava and conferred upon him the star of the order.

At the recent meeting of the National Institute of Social Sciences held in New York City the Institute conferred gold medals upon President Harry Pratt Judson, Dr. Wilfred Grenfell of Labrador, and Dr. Alexis Carrel. The gold medal was awarded to President Judson in recognition of his services to the nation and to the Allies as head of the Persian Mission of 1918.

At the third annual meeting of the American Council on Education in Washington, May 7 and 8, President Harry Pratt Judson, of the University of Chicago, presided at the conference on the participation of the federal government in education. Among the speakers were President John H. MacCracken, of Lafayette College; Dr. Samuel P. Capen, director of the American Council on Education; and Director Charles H. Judd, of the School of Education, University of Chicago. At the annual business meeting President Judson was re-elected chairman for 1920–21.

Professor James Henry Breasted, Chairman of the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures at the University of Chicago, has been appointed a member of the National Research Council on the Division of Anthropology and Psychology for a period of three years, beginning July 1, 1920. Professor Breasted, who is Director of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, is now in the Near East conducting an archaeological survey of that region. The expedition has already visited Egypt and Mesopotamia and is expected to reach Damascus by June in the course of the survey of Syria. The party hopes to sail from Naples for home by the latter part of August.

Alfred Ernest Garvie, M.A., D.D., president of New College, Hampstead, England, gave an address before the Divinity School of the University of Chicago on June 1. President Garvie, a graduate of Oxford and Glasgow, has been president of the Congregational Union of Scotland, professor of comparative religion and Christian ethics in Hackney and New Colleges, London, and is the author of many religious books, including a *Commentary on Romans*, *The Gospel for Today*, and *Religious Education: A Guide to Preachers*.

Interest in the Italian language and literature has been much quickened by the war, and to meet the increasing demand for new textbooks and new editions of modern Italian novels and plays the University of Chicago Press is to issue shortly the first volumes in a new series, "The University of Chicago Italian Series," which will be under the editorship of Ernest Hatch Wilkins, a well-known authority on Italian literature.

Announcement is made of the publication in July, in time for use in summer schools, of Giacosa's *Tristi Amori*, edited by Rudolph Altrocchi and Benjamin M. Woodbridge, with an introduction by Stanley A. Smith; and in September, of *A First Italian Book*, by Professor Wilkins. The latter is a very simple introduction to the study of Italian, novel in plan. It will be followed in October by *An Italian Reader*, by the same scholar in co-operation with Antonio Marinoni. The reader will consist of short sketches written by the editors, dealing with Italian history and Italian life.

Announcements for the same series in 1921 include those of Farina's *Fra le corde di un contrabasso*, Giacosa's *Una partita a scacchi*, and Pellico's *Francesca da Rimini*. A striking feature in the series will be *Il risorgimento*, a collection of literary expressions of the Italian spirit in the struggle for independence and unity, including the first act of Rovetta's *Romanticismo* and Carducci's oration on the death of Garibaldi.

A letter from Baghdad, Persia, contains the news that Director James Henry Breasted, of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, who is now conducting an archaeological survey in the Near East, accepted an invitation to give the commencement address at the Syrian Protestant College at Beirut on June 17. The dean of the college is Dr. Harold Haydon Nelson, professor of history, who received his Doctor's degree from the University of Chicago in 1913 for work in Egyptology. It is peculiarly appropriate that Professor Breasted, who is chairman of the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures at Chicago and has given so many years to the study of ancient civilizations, should bring a commencement message to the young men of the Near East gathered in the college at Beirut.

Dr. William E. Dodd, Professor of American History in the University of Chicago, received the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws from Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia, on June 8.

Among the most popular features of the Summer Quarter at the University of Chicago is the series of Friday evening concerts, lectures, and readings in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall. The series this year opened with a concert by Myrna Sharlow, prima donna soprano, of the Chicago Grand Opera Association, on June 25. On July 2 a concert was given by Monica Graham Stults, soprano, and Walter Allen Stults, baritone. On July 9 Stephen Leacock, Ph.D., distinguished economist and humorist, lectured on "Frenzied Fiction"; and Lorado Taft, the Chicago sculptor, will give an illustrated lecture, July 16, on "An Hour in a Sculptor's Studio; General View of Processes." Among other striking features of the course will be an author's reading by Percy MacKaye, dramatist, and one by Amy Lowell, poet.

Professor Paul Shorey, Head of the Department of the Greek Language and Literature at the University of Chicago, recently gave the commencement address at Bryn Mawr College, his subject being "The Things That Are More Excellent." Professor Shorey was for several years professor of Greek at Bryn Mawr, being called from that institution to the University of Chicago in 1892. On June 15 Princeton University conferred the honorary degree of Doctor of Letters on Professor Shorey.

Three alumni of the University of Chicago have recently been made presidents of important educational institutions—David Prescott Barrows, Ph.D., 1897, now president of the University of California; Wallace Walter Atwood, S.B. '97, Ph.D. '03, professor of physiography in Harvard University, president-elect of Clark University, Massachusetts; and Clifton D. Gray, D.B. 1900, Ph.D. '01, the new president of Bates College, Maine.

The University Preachers for the Summer Quarter at the University of Chicago have been announced, as follows:

On June 27, Professor Gerald Birney Smith, of the University of Chicago Divinity School; July 4, President Frank Wakeley Gunsaulus, of the Armour Institute of Technology; July 11, Professor Theodore Gerald Soares, Head of the Department of Practical Theology, University of Chicago; July 18, Dean

Shailer Mathews, of the Divinity School; and July 25, Dr. Frank Shannon, of Central Church, Chicago.

In the month of August the University Preachers will be Professor Robert Macintosh, of Lancashire Independent College, Manchester, England; Terrot Raeveley Glover, Classical Lecturer at St. John's College, Cambridge, England; Dean Herbert Lockwood Willett, of the University of Chicago.

Ninety members of the faculties of other institutions will give instruction at the University of Chicago during the Summer Quarter. There will be more than two hundred and fifty in the Summer Faculty, including representatives from Harvard and Yale, Cambridge University, England, the University of Pisa, and the Russell Sage Foundation. Other institutions represented are Dartmouth, Williams, and Union colleges, the Universities of Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Kansas, Texas, Wyoming, California, and Leland Stanford Junior University.

A research assistant in chemistry at the University of Chicago, Mr. Clarence E. Broeker, died at the Presbyterian Hospital in Chicago on May 29. Mr. Broeker had done important work under Professor William D. Harkins, of the Department of Chemistry, and in recognition of his ability and work had been appointed to the Swift Fellowship in Chemistry for 1920–21, the highest honor in the Department.

Dr. Leonard E. Dickson, Professor of Mathematics, has recently been elected Corresponding Member of the French Academy of Sciences. After taking his doctorate in 1896, the first year in which doctorates in Mathematics were conferred by the University of Chicago, Dr. Dickson spent a year in study in Leipzig and Paris; after teaching in the University of California and the University of Texas he has been a member of the staff in Mathematics here since 1900, being full professor since 1910. Besides publishing a number of texts on advanced subjects he has contributed steadily to the leading mathematical periodicals of Europe and America in various departments of pure mathematics, especially in group theory, algebra, geometry, and number theory. He is now publishing under the auspices of the Carnegie Institution of Washington a monumental *History of the Theory of Numbers* in three volumes, in which the extensive literature of this subject from the earliest times to date is carefully analyzed; this history is certain to be of permanent value not only to later historians but to all workers in the theory of numbers. The Department of Mathematics and the University of Chicago are highly honored by the election of Dr. Dickson as Corresponding Member of the French Academy of Sciences. Dr. A. A. Michelson, as the only preceding Corresponding Member in the University, presided at a complimentary luncheon to Dr. Dickson at the Quadrangle Club, June 23, 1920. In all twenty-eight were present, the staff in Mathematics with Professors M. W. Haskell of the University of California and E. W. Chittenden of the University of Iowa, on the staff for the summer, and a number of Chicago doctors and other guests of the University, representatives of Mathematical Astronomy, Physics, and Chemistry, and Dean R. D. Salisbury and Professors T. C. Chamberlin and J. M. Coulter representing the science departments in general. In welcoming Dr. Dickson to the French Academy of Sciences, Dr. Michelson gave a brief sketch of the history of the Academy and in particular in reading the list of corresponding members in pure mathematics called attention to the fact that Dr. Dickson is the first corresponding member from America. After brief remarks by Professors E. H. Moore, T. C. Chamberlin, and F. R. Moulton, Dr. Dickson responded felicitously.

The *President's Report* covers the years 1917–19, no report having been issued in 1918. The present volume contains the reports of all University officers for the two years and is especially interesting in that it covers the war period. The Dean of the Faculties, for instance, reports fully on the S.A.T.C. and there is an appendix containing a brief account of the University War Service. In this latter will be found a brief record of the activities of the men and women of the University faculties.

The building plans of the University of Chicago will continue to be one of the subjects covered in future numbers of the

University Record. The April number contained an account of the projected Quadrangle Club. The present number has drawings of the buildings proposed or already erected by the several Divinity groups related to the University of Chicago. It is hoped that plans and drawings for the Billings Memorial Hospital and the Epstein Dispensary and the University Chapel may soon be ready for publication.

Early reports of attendance during the Summer Quarter indicate an increase over the attendance in the Summer Quarter, 1919, and a possible increase over that of the largest on record, the attendance in the Summer Quarter, 1916. The increase is chiefly in the Graduate Schools, although all schools and colleges show gains.

At the meeting of the Association of American Universities at Columbia University, November 17, 18, 19, papers will be presented as follows: First Session, November 18, "Co-operation in Research with Private Institutions." Papers will be presented by Professor John Johnson, of Yale University and Dr. Frank B. Jewett, Ph.D., Chicago 1902, Chief Engineer of the Western Electric Company. Second Session, November 18, "Co-operation in Research in the Humanities." Dean Charles Homer Haskins of Harvard University will present the paper. Third Session, November 19, "Fellowships" will be presented by Dean Alfred Henry Lloyd of the University of Michigan. Dean F. J. E. Woodbridge, Columbia University, will present a paper, "The Social Environment of the Graduate Student."

ATTENDANCE IN SPRING QUARTER, 1920

	1917	1920			1919			Gain	Loss
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total		
I. Arts, Literature and Science:									
1. Graduate Schools—									
Arts, Literature	363	212	184	396	130	124	254	142	.....
Science	299	247	75	322	165	74	239	83	.....
Total	662	459	259	718	295	198	493	225	.....
2. The Colleges—									
Senior	870	573	461	1,034	365	376	741	293	.....
Junior	1,124	732	501	1,233	552	419	971	262	.....
Unclassified	93	57	46	103	41	34	75	28	.....
Total	2,087	1,362	1,008	2,370	958	829	1,787	583	.....
Total Arts, Literature, and Science	2,749	1,821	1,267	3,088	1,253	1,027	2,280	808	.....
II. Professional Schools:									
1. Divinity School—									
Graduate	.....	97	13	110	81	12	93	.....	.....
Unclassified	.....	11	8	19	13	2	15	.....	.....
English Theological	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Chicago Theological	.....	23	9	32	21	1	22	.....	.....
Total	193	131	30	161	115	15	130	31	.....
*2. Courses in Medicine—									
Graduate	.....	73	20	93	55	16	71	.....	.....
*Senior	.....	112	14	126	101	19	120	.....	.....
Junior	.....	1	.....	1	3	.....	3	.....	.....
Unclassified	.....	8	.....	8	8	.....	8	.....	.....
Total	198	194	34	228	167	35	202	26	.....
3. Law School—									
Graduate	.....	116	6	122	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
*Senior	.....	56	.....	56	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Candidates for LL.B.	.....	83	3	86	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Unclassified	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	241	255	9	264	125	12	137	127	.....
4. College of Education	352	17	193	210	14	192	206	4	.....
5. College of Commerce and Administration	.....	386	115	501	164	82	246	255	.....
Total Professional	984	983	381	1,364	585	336	921	443	.....
Total University	3,733	2,804	1,648	4,452	1,838	1,363	3,201	1,251	.....
*Deduct for Duplication	256	255	37	292	194	60	254	.....	.....
Net Totals in Quadrangles	3,477	2,549	1,611	4,160	1,644	1,303	2,947	1,213	.....
University College	853	213	806	1,019	133	581	714	305	.....
Totals in the University	4,330	2,762	2,417	5,179	1,777	1,884	3,661	1,518	.....

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OCTOBER 1920

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EDITOR
DAVID ALLAN ROBERTSON

Vol. VI

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THE UNIVERSITY RECORD

VOLUME VI OCTOBER 1920 NUMBER 4

THE NEW PAST[1]

BY JAMES HENRY BREASTED, PH.D., LL.D.

In spite of all her inventiveness and her numerous innovations, America is largely dominated by the past; but notwithstanding this fact there is an extraordinary lack of consciousness of the past in America. There are plentiful evidences about us of our geological past, and such things as the moraines of northern Illinois or the Grand Canyon of the Colorado inevitably remind us of vast lapses of geological time. But man most easily grasps the fact of the human past when he sees it embodied before him in survivals of human handiwork, and he most vividly discerns its length when he finds it measured by the surviving material achievements of men in utensils, buildings, or works of art. For the most part such things can be found only in Europe and the Orient.

There are spots in Europe today where chance has brought strangely near together and left lying side by side the relics of the earliest prehistoric savages and the evidences of so-called modern civilization—the earliest and latest points in the traceable human career. The soil of the battle-scarred hills overlooking the river Somme in northern France is thickly sown with fragments of steel shells which have penetrated deeply into the slopes and natural terraces made by the river ages ago. Today, when the great guns are silent, a few minutes' work with a shovel will uncover lying together in the gravels along the brow of the valley the flint fist hatchet, the earliest surviving weapon of man, and the jagged fragments of the modern explosive steel shell. There they lie, as you unearth them, side by side, the flint fist hatchet and the steel

[1] Address delivered on the occasion of the One Hundred and Seventeenth Convocation of the University held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, September 3, 1920.

shell fragment, and the whole sweep of human history lies between them —a story of at least fifty and perhaps a hundred and fifty thousand years of human endeavor leading us age by age from one to the other.

Although not a few English historians still follow Freeman, his definition of history as "past politics" has been quite truthfully characterized by Frederick Harrison's remark that it leaves out nine-tenths of the facts necessary to understand the past—that is, nine-tenths of the essential content of history. To no small extent history is a story of the conquest of material resources by means of highly varied devices, tools, implements, and machinery, if we include also in these things the consequences, industrial, social, political, artistic, and religious, which resulted from their introduction. The steam or gasoline cylinder is as truly the symbol of the present age as the stone fist hatchet is the sign manual of the Stone Age life of fifty thousand years ago.

The recovery of the past in this larger sense is demanding a new type of historian—a cosmopolitan student of man, who is alike anthropologist, archaeologist, ethnologist, comparative religionist, versed in art and literature and acquainted both with the classical and the leading oriental languages of antiquity. With this equipment he must combine a magnanimous readiness to consider the disquieting possibility that civilization appeared in the eastern Mediterranean long before the Greeks themselves ever lived there, and he must cultivate a becoming fortitude of spirit to face with equanimity even the disclosure, so horrifying to some classicists among us, that the most sacred shrines of Greek culture were profaned by many foreign influences which furnished the primitive barbarism of the archaic Greeks with all the ordinary material processes of civilized life, and restored civilization in Europe after the barbarian invasions of the earliest Greeks had destroyed it, root and branch. Notwithstanding the laborious years necessary to produce a historian with an equipment like this, men of this type are already at work and their devoted labors are now recovering the impressive story of that age-long process by which the primitive forest of the Stone Age hunter has given way to the modern forest of factory chimneys.

The imposing task of recovering the story of the human past has, however, hardly more than begun. It is a little over two generations ago that Boucher de Perthes, the pioneer investigator in *prehistoric archaeology*, discovered lying together in the high glacial gravels of northern France along the river Somme the stone fist hatchet of the earliest European savage, together with the bones of colossal and long extinct mammals, which De Perthes declared to be contemporary with

the fist hatchet. It is less than two generations ago that the English scientists Huxley, Prestwich, Sir Charles Lyell, and others visited the Somme Valley and substantiated the facts observed by Boucher de Perthes. As a result of this visit Lyell published his epoch-making volume on *The Antiquity of Man*, which appeared during our Civil War. We are all familiar with Huxley's discomfiture of the Anglican bishops which followed this final recognition of the enormous age of man, for some of us read the debate in our younger days in the current magazines.

The revelation of thousands of years of *oriental history*, lying back of anything before known of the Ancient East, is equally recent. Rollin's *Ancient History*, in English translation, though its author had little more than Herodotus and the Old Testament as sources for the history of the Ancient East, is still offered for sale in the windows of our downtown bookshops; and in my boyhood it was still widely read. My father's copy of Layard's *Nineveh and Babylon*, the marvel of my boyhood, with its mysterious winged and human-headed bulls on the cover, went into his library, as shown by the date on the flyleaf, in 1869; while the title-page is dated 1859. It was only a few years earlier that the decipherment of Babylonian and Assyrian cuneiform was achieved, and the first inscriptions in Egyptian hieroglyphic were read only a quarter of a century earlier. Our knowledge of these languages and these systems of writing is still far from complete and is making daily progress.

Thus with startling suddenness and practically in our own time the curtain has been drawn aside, permitting us to look back into the deeps of a past so appallingly remote that neither thought nor education have as yet become adjusted to it. Let us for a moment look back into this imposing vista of human development, disclosed to us by the investigation of *prehistoric man* in Europe on the one hand and of the once lost civilizations in the *Orient* on the other.

Almost everyone is aware that we can now trace the forward movement of earliest man in Europe through many thousands of years of struggle with the material world. The great polar ice cap descending on the north side of the Mediterranean for the fourth time, driving the European savages of the Early Stone Age southward and then slowly retreating northward again, has become for us a vast geological clock, the fourfold rhythmic swing of whose colossal ice pendulum furnishes dim intimations of an enormous lapse of time, during which the gradual improvement of man's stone weapons and implements discloses his slow advance on the long road upward from savagery toward

civilization. The imagination is thrilled by these revelations of the age-long struggle of our savage ancestor, as we discern in his slow conquest of the forces about him a secular aspect filling us with the same cosmic emotion which we feel in the presence of some imposing phenomenon of nature.

While we may assume that many educated people of today are familiar with the outstanding facts thus far set forth, it is not commonly known, on the other hand, that the Late Stone Age life, like that of Europe eight or ten thousand years ago, undoubtedly entirely surrounded the Mediterranean and fringed its shores much as did the government of the Roman Empire thousands of years later. Nor is it commonly understood that, while this was the character of human existence all around the Mediterranean, we are unable to discover the least evidence that man had anywhere else on earth attained a mode of life in any respect superior to that in the Mediterranean basin of eight or ten thousand years ago. Everywhere man was still without metals, sea-going ships, writing, domestic animals, domestic grains, agriculture, and textile clothing. Without these fundamentals of civilization the life of man throughout the globe inevitably remained crude and barbarous.

At this juncture, however, geological forces had already been long at work preparing a new and much more favorably situated home for the Late Stone Age hunters at the southeast corner of the Mediterranean. Here tropical Africa stretched forth across the Sahara to the south-eastern corner of the midland sea, a fertile and sheltered corridor teeming with luxuriant vegetable and animal life from inner Africa, and offering to the Late Stone Age hunters a home of inexhaustible resources in a situation of unexampled safety and protection from hostile intruders.

Into this paradise of the lower Nile Valley, which we now call Egypt, the Stone Age hunters of the North African plateau had inevitably been lured by the chase from the beginning. I have found their Nile boats carved on the rocks far out in the wastes of the Nubian Sahara behind Abu Simbel. Elsewhere in the whole Mediterranean world there was no situation where the hunting life would be so stimulated to advance to a higher stage as it was along the Nile. Europe meanwhile had seemingly been retarded by the rigors of an Ice Age climate, while on the other hand long before 5000 B.C. the favored hunters of the Nile jungle had advanced far beyond their European contemporaries in the great prehistoric world around the Mediterranean. Today we excavate along the margin of the Egyptian alluvium on the edge of the desert the graves of the oldest known cemeteries in the world, and find

lying in these graves the descendants of the Nile hunters of the Stone Age, just beginning the transition to metal. They had already acquired all the leading domestic animals, and, having domesticated likewise the wild cereal grasses, had made the transition to the settled agricultural life. All the evidence would now indicate that these prehistoric Egyptians of the early cemeteries, or their ancestors, were the earliest men on earth who were able to insure themselves an uninterrupted food supply by the domestication of the wild sources, vegetable and animal, while their subsequent conquest of metal and their development of the earliest known system of phonetic writing gave them the leadership in the long advance to civilization when all the rest of the world still lagged behind in Stone Age barbarism.

Upon these great conquests, chiefly in the material world, followed an impressive development, social, governmental, and religious. This jungle valley lying athwart the eastern Sahara had gathered between its contracted rocky walls the prehistoric hunters scattered along the North African coast and held them together in the possession of all the resources necessary for the unhampered development of human life under conditions so favorable that they were slowly consolidated into the first great society of several million souls swayed by one sovereign hand and in possession of the leading fundamentals of civilization. Thus in the centuries between 5000 and 3000 B.C. arose the first great civilized state at a time when the Mediterranean elsewhere was still fringed with scattered communities of Stone Age hunters.

The prehistoric hunter whose self-expression was quite content to ply the flint graving tool in carving symmetrical lines of game beasts along the ivory handle of a stone dagger was thus transformed by fifty generations of social evolution into a royal architect launching great bodies of organized craftsmen upon the quarries of the Nile cliffs, and summoning thence stately and rhythmic colonnades, imposing temples, and a vast rampart of pyramids, the greatest tombs ever erected by the hand of man. Such outward, often purely material, expressions of advancing social and governmental organization, with which man's unfolding inner life has kept even pace, furnish the unwritten evidence by which the new historian must trace the successive transitions which have lifted man from savagery to civilization; and it is the study of such human documents which has revealed to us the outlines of the marvelous story as we now possess it.

Now why are these developments, in the life of an age so remote and a land so distant, of any consequence to us of modern America? We of

America are especially fitted to visualize and to understand the wonderful transformation of a wilderness into a land of splendid cities. But our fathers, whose efforts have planted great and prosperous cities along the once lonely trails of our own broad land, received art and architecture, industry and commerce, social and governmental traditions, as an inheritance from earlier times. There was an age, however, when the transition from barbarism to civilization, with all its impressive outward manifestations in art and architecture, had to be made *for the first time.* The significance of the appearance of civilization along the Nile does not lie in the splendor of its buildings, but in the fact that it was rising *for the first time on earth.*

Today the traveler on the Nile enters a wonderland at whose gates rise the colossal pyramids of which he has had visions from earliest childhood. As he ascends the river he sees expanding behind palm-fringed shores vast temple precincts, to which avenues of sphinxes lead up from the shore, dominated by the mighty shafts of tall obelisks and stately colonnades. But it does not occur to the traveler that, just as in America, so there on the Nile *the wilderness preceded all this.* Where those vast monuments of stone now rise once stretched the tangled jungle of the Nile canyon, pathless for thousands of years save where the hunter's narrow trail led through the reeds to the water's edge. Rarely does the modern pilgrim in Egypt realize that there was no civilized ancestry from whom the prehistoric Nile-dweller might receive an inheritance of culture. In their own deepening experience and broadening vision we must find the magic which transformed these primitive hunters and their little settlements of wattle huts into a great society dominated by masterful men of grandly spacious imagination, of imposing monumental vision, whose prodigal hands, untrammeled by tradition, stretched out over the one-time jungle, scattered these gigantic monuments far up and down the river. He who knows the story of the transition from the prehistoric hunters of the Nile jungle to the sovereigns and statesmen, the architects, engineers, and craftsmen of a great organized society, which wrought these monumental wonders along the Nile at a time when all Europe was still living in Stone Age barbarism and there was none to teach a civilization of the past—he who knows all this knows the story of the *first rise of civilization anywhere on the globe.*

Civilization was thus born at the southeast corner of the Mediterranean. The Stone Age villagers on the northern coasts of the same sea, that is, in Southern Europe, looked wonderingly out upon the earliest sea-going craft ever equipped with sails issuing from the mouths

of the Nile and bringing the works of civilized man for the first time to the shores of Europe, precisely as the West Indian natives later marveled to see the first ships of Europe approaching the shores of America. For just as European civilization was brought across the Atlantic to the savages of the Western World, so oriental civilization crossed the Mediterranean to the barbarians of Europe. In view of his remarkable discoveries in Crete, the southeastern outpost of Europe, where it approaches most nearly to Egypt, Sir Arthur Evans states with evident conviction, "Ancient Egypt itself can no longer be regarded as something apart from general human history."

While this is true and it is an undoubted fact that Egypt's position on the Mediterranean gave it easier access to Europe than was possible in the case of Babylonia, separated as it was from the Mediterranean by hundreds of miles of desert, nevertheless we must not forget that somewhat later than in Egypt there arose in Babylonia a remarkable civilization, characterized by persistent progress in practical, legal, and commercial matters, and at the same time so devoted to the belief that human destiny might be read in the stars that its extraordinary skill in the study of the celestial bodies furnished the data which became in the hands of the Greeks the foundations of the science of astronomy. The line of communication between the Babylonians and Europe lay through Asia Minor, as that of Egypt led across the Mediterranean. At the same time the interfusion of civilizations in the Near Orient led to the creation of what we may call an Egypto-Babylonian or Near-Oriental culture nucleus. It lay behind Europe from *our* point of view, and from it, especially later from the harbors of Phoenicia, came the culture forces which set European civilization going. Not only so, but a current of oriental influences, of which Christianity is the most noticeable, continuing to set toward Europe, eventually transformed the Roman State at Constantinople into an oriental despotism and continued to be felt until long after the Crusades.

The recognition that the earliest center of civilization in the Eastern Hemisphere was in the eastern Mediterranean region, whence it was diffused in all directions, especially toward Europe, makes possible a great generalization regarding the developing life of man on earth, which I think has remained unnoticed. It is now evident that there are only two regions on the globe in which man has risen from Stone Age savagery to the possession of agriculture, metals, and writing, the indispensable fundamentals of civilization. The complete independence of these two regions in making these cultural conquests is evident. They

are geographically widely separated. One of them is in the New World and the other in the Old, and each of them lies along or on both sides of a great intercontinental bridge, one joining the two Americas, the other connecting Africa and Eurasia. In both the Old World and the New, the bridge between the continents formed the center around which took place the development and diffusion of the highest civilization at first attained in either hemisphere.[1]

We speak with reason of the Old World and the New; for the development in the Eastern Hemisphere was six thousand years earlier than in the Western. The European conquest of the Americas found the aborigines of the central region just beginning the use of metal, employing picture-writing about to become phonetic, in full possession of agriculture and irrigation, but still without domestic animals. That is Columbus found the aboriginal Americans at a level of culture already attained by the Near Orient well back of 4000 B.C.

Considerations like these disclose at once an impressive degree of unity in the career of man. The recognition of the Orient as lying behind the history of Europe, just as the history of Europe lies behind that of America, and the further possibility of pushing back behind the historic Orient to the ages of man's prehistoric development and linking these up in their turn with the history of the Orient, thus giving us the ever remoter stages, America, Europe, the Near Orient, prehistoric man, the geological ages—these latest reconstructions of the new historian disclose to us the career of man for the first time *as one whole*, to be regarded as a consecutive development from the stone fist hatchet to the shell fragments of 1914 buried side by side on the battlefields of the Somme. A comprehensive study of the ancient Orient, carried on with open eyes and with larger objects in view than the statistics of the dative case, reveals to us the well-known and long familiar historic epochs of the career of European man for the first time set in a background of several hundred thousand years. In this vast synthesis, which only a study of oriental history makes possible, there is thus disclosed to us an imposing panorama of the human career in a vista of successive ages such as no earlier generation has ever been able to survey. *This is the New Past.*

However it may be with science and philosophy, history has thus far made little account of this tremendous synthesis. And this brings

[1] Much of this paragraph is quoted from the author's presidential address before the American Oriental Society, published in the *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, XXXIX, 161.

up the important question why modern education and research should be expected to take account of the New Past—these ages which seem so remote from modern life. These things all happened so long ago! Yes, the law of gravitation was set in operation a long time ago, and the coal measures and the iron deposits were laid down ages ago; but they are all modern forces still affecting our lives every day. Physics and geology deal with them in education, and our economic life could not go on without them. Just so the discovery of Southeastern Europe by civilization five thousand years ago. It brought things into the life of Europe which today are forces as constantly and insistently touching our lives in all that we do as the force of gravitation, the energy of coal, or the myriad modern applications of iron and steel. How far would the average citizen go in his day's program if he were to eliminate as of no more use the things which he has inherited from the early Orient? When he rises in the morning and clothes his body in *textile garments*, when he sits down to the breakfast table spread with spotless *linen*, set with vessels of *glazed pottery* and with drinking goblets of *glass*, when he puts forth his hand to any implement of *metal* on that table except aluminum, when he eats his morning *roll* or *cereal* and drinks his glass of *milk*, or perhaps eats his morning chop cut from the flesh of a *domesticated animal*, when he rolls downtown in a vehicle supported on *wheels*, when he enters his office building through a porticus supported on *columns*, when he sits down at his desk, spreads out a sheet of *paper*, grasps his *pen*, dips it in *ink*, puts a *date* at the head of the sheet, writes a *check* or a *promissory note*, or dictates a *lease* or a *contract* to his secretary, when he looks at his watch with the *sixty-fold division* of the circle on its face, in all these and in an infinite number of other commonplaces of life—things without which modern life could not go on for a single hour, the average man of today is using items of an inheritance which began to pass across the eastern Mediterranean from the Orient when Europe was discovered by civilization five thousand years ago. Even in the world of science it is found, for example, that in the modern study of the moon the observations of the Babylonians furnishing the earliest known data are of great value. Similarly the processes of smelting metallic ores devised by the Egyptians some six thousand years ago, when they became the first smelters of metal, have been employed with little change ever since, until in quite recent years modern chemistry has introduced improvements and changes.

It is, however, quite possible to misunderstand the value of ancient oriental achievement. One of the commonest and most regrettable

spectacles of modern life, especially in America and England, is that of enraptured femininity contemplating the lofty truths fondly believed to be enshrined in some ancient oriental faith, and forgetting all that ages of social experience have contributed in developing, elevating, and enriching all the surviving religions of ancient origin. To ignore these later centuries of ennobling development and, turning backward, to adopt without change the germinal stages of some ancient faith is as reasonable as it would be for the thirsty individual seeking refreshment on a hot day to go and lie down under an acorn and regale himself on a water-melon seed!

Is there, then, any value that may still come to us from the New Past other than the intrinsic worth of its surviving achievements which are still in common use among us? Lord Acton has well said that "next to the discovery of the New World, the recovery of the ancient world is the second landmark that divides us from the Middle Ages and marks the transition to modern life." In this distinguished historian's judgment, therefore, the two great forces which led men out of the Middle Ages into modern life were a vision which looked both *forward* and *backward*, and which not only caught the limitless possibilities of the *future* in the New World after 1492, but also drew the profoundest inspiration from the newly recovered *past*, as they learned to know it in the surviving writings and other important works of its greatest men. What was the ancient world, the past, to which Lord Acton refers? The only past known to the men who were emerging from the Middle Ages was, as we all know, the past of Greece and Rome. Now we have just been considering the fact that the process of recovering the ancient world which began at the dawn of the Renaissance, did not cease with the Renaissance, but has gone on through all the centuries since then, and with quickening strides, especially during the last two generations. We listen now not only to the voices of Cicero and Socrates, of Isaiah and David, as did the men of the Renaissance, but also to the voice of Sennacherib in the proud story of his victories, to the voice of Cheops telling in terms of colossal masonry architecture the triumphs of the first great organized state, to the voice of the earliest smelter of metals singing in the tinkle of his primitive anvil the song of man's coming conquest of the earth, to the voice of remote and long-forgotten aeons heard now only in the message of ever more carefully wrought stone implements, to the voice of geological ages muttering in the savage gutturals of incipient human speech which we seem to hear resounding through prehistoric forests re-echoing to the first inarticulate utterances of those now hardly dis-

cernible creatures, about to become men. Back through the aeons into historic and prehistoric deeps like these we now look, and listen to the echoes that come to us out of the vista of the ages. It was with such a a vision before him that Tennyson looked down into the cradle of his firstborn and said, "Out of the deeps, my child"; and such a vision of the New Past, just beginning to dawn upon the minds of modern men, has values as yet all unproved. He who really discerns it has begun to read the glorious Odyssey of human kind, disclosing to us man pushing out upon the ocean of time to make conquest of treasure unspeakable, of worlds surpassing all his dreams—the supreme adventure of the ages. Such a vision must have high moral value, for who can see it and fail to feel the call to follow and to achieve in high endeavor the ultimate destiny of which the vision gives unequivocal promise? In these days when emotional religion has so often given way to sober and even prosaic resolution, I see in the picture of man's past achievements and progress a powerful stimulus to continue the great adventure on the highest plane. I am convinced that this New Past, which we of this generation are the first to behold, may be made a great moral power among the youth of our land.

Again perhaps the most evident element of power resulting from the recovery of the New Past is the demonstration of amazing progress which it reveals. If we may trust the oracular London *Times*, as I have no doubt we may, a bishop of the Anglican church, while delivering the last Romanes lecture at Oxford University a few weeks ago, emphatically denied that history discloses any human progress. I hope I may be pardoned the suspicion that the bishop has not yet banished Archbishop Ussher's dust-covered chronology from the margin of his Bible, where it probably occupies an impregnable position along with the imprecatory Psalms. For it is inconceivable that anyone acquainted with the facts of man's career as at present known to us can doubt the amazing reach and sweep of human progress; a progress in the face of which even the events of the last six years seem hardly more than a casual episode, and one which is dwarfed into insignificance as we contemplate the effect of the Glacial Age or of the subsequent retreat of the ice on the human career.

An invaluable corollary of this progress, always evident to anyone who studies it as a whole, is its demonstration of the value of *conservatism*, a word which is slowly recovering its respectability among us at present. We are rooted in the past and unconsciously every hour we submit to the dictates of its inexorable voice. We still wear buttons on

our coat sleeves and at the top of our coat tails, although we no longer button to them the satin-lined cuffs and coat flaps of our fathers as they did when they mounted their horses. Everybody knows his appendix is a survival of a once useful but now very troublesome organ which he is glad to part with even at considerable hospital charges, and I am told by the physiologists that our interiors are infested with scores of such survivals. Most of us are also afflicted with serious mental appendixes, of which we may be largely unconscious. Nevertheless any nation which considers the past a troublesome appendix to be discarded as quickly as possible will find itself in the position of Russia at the present moment, relapsing rapidly into a barbarism which temporary successes in war will only render the more terrible.

If we are to make safe and sane progress, it can only be made valuable and enduring by the conservation of much of the past. The New Past as we have come to know it in the last two generations will unquestionably prove of the greatest value to our young people in displaying clearly how every conquest of progress has carried along with it the germs of the old, and in showing unmistakably how the old surviving in the new has usually never wholly disappeared. The present, with its revolutionary innovations and its seemingly almost instantaneous transitions, is very misleading. Even the most novel of modern mechanical devices may reach back into a past far remoter than we fancy, and the startling suddenness with which it has seemed to emerge and take its place among us completely disappears. A good example is the land battleship, the *tank*, which was so abruptly introduced long after the beginning of the Great War. Yet we might step over into Haskell Oriental Museum and find there in Assyrian reliefs sculptured in the ninth century before Christ a wheeled and armored battle car moving across the field of battle, propelled by power from within and guided by a commander protected by a domed and circular turret with peepholes all around under the eaves of the dome. There it is in actual use nearly twenty-eight hundred years ago—a modern tank but for the lack of gunpowder and gasoline power. Our McCormicks and other inventors of farm machinery would probably be interested to know that a Babylonian seal bears a little engraving showing a machine seeder drawn by oxen engaged in sowing grain. As a symbol of the fruitful life that feeds an empire the Assyrian kings placed a representation of this seeder in brilliantly colored glazed bricks on the palace walls. For the mind of a young person who may have become interested in the vagaries of some soap-box purveyor of universal social panaceas, who would wipe out the past, I do not know of any better cure than a knowledge of the New Past.

One of the things which early strikes the student of the New Past is the conflict between this newly discerned unity of the human career and the exclusiveness of modern nationalism, as it has grown up during the brief five thousand years of the career of cilivization. This contrast properly appreciated may have its uses. Most of us, I think, however much we may long for conditions which will permit a peaceful federation of the world, now understand that it is of little use to put a League of Nations on paper. We now see that the peoples of the earth must each be educated to a point where public feeling will demand some form of league, and before that point is reached it is useless to endeavor to force through a paper league, not yet imperiously demanded by the people of every civilized nation of importance. It may take generations to create such a public feeling among the leading peoples of civilization. In the process of education which will build up such a public sentiment, I am convinced that the vision of the unity of man arising in the mind of every young person who has gained some knowledge of the New Past will not remain a mere academic conception, but as one of the supreme facts of modern knowledge may become and will become a compelling influence toward a future federation of the world and an eventual brotherhood of men.

But how shall the New Past find its proper place in education? Shall we of the universities leave it to a brilliant modern novelist and outspoken critic of the universities? One of the most delightful experiences during my recent long absence from the University was a week's end at Easton Glebe, Dunmow, the Essex home of H. G. Wells, whom we may not inappropriately recognize as an apostle of the New Past. Long drives, vivacious teas, and contemplative walks, interspersed with games and dances in Mr. Britling's barn, gave ample opportunity for discussion of these things. Mr. Wells's new *Outline of History*, now appearing serially and then almost ready for the press, furnished an inexhaustible storehouse of themes for these discussions, which I wish some of our own historians and educators might have heard. It was very refreshing not to be called upon to argue for the treatment of man's career as a whole, or to defend the thesis that history must expand to include the New Past.

It is evident, indeed, that no modern university department of history is complete which does not include at least one course on the New Past. We have special courses on the history of mammals, in which the student may follow the development of the horse from a creature little if any larger than a rabbit up to the mammoth draught horses of today. Without conceit man may fairly consider himself as a mammal

comparable in importance with the horse; but what university offers a course following evolution at its culminating stage, tracing its supreme achievement in bringing forth the life of modern man, from the pre-man of the Maurer Sands by Heidelberg to the earliest great societies of civilized man from whom we are all descended? We are told these things do not belong to history. But the geologists offer courses in the history of the earth, and the paleobotanists offer courses in the history of many forms of plant life. Natural science uses the word "history" quite properly to designate developments in which written documents play no part whatever, and we may fairly ask by what authority the history of man is limited to the period since written documents began.

These considerations might bring up the whole question of the correlation of the New Past with the great body of science, natural and humanistic. As I had the opportunity of saying in the William Ellery Hale lectures,[1] I have often wondered what there is unnatural about man. Is he unnatural because he lives in groups and builds houses? Many birds do the same, and some beasts also, like the beaver. Nevertheless both in education and in the organization of research we have strangely isolated man from the natural order where Linnaeus long ago found a place for him; and there is a very unfortunate chasm both in education and research between natural and so-called humanistic science—a chasm for which there is no justification.

That this unfortunate cleavage will disappear eventually I have no doubt. It blinds us to larger correlations in education which the New Past makes obviously possible. We arrange the curriculum of a historical department chronologically, because it is a matter of course that medieval should follow ancient history, and American should follow European. Since the recovery of the New Past it is now possible and perfectly feasible *to carry this chronological arrangement much farther back* into the career of the universe and thus to include also the natural-science departments and arrange a series of courses presenting an outline history of the universe, from the fundamental constitution of matter through the formation of celestial systems, the origin and history of our globe, the emergence of life, its upward progress through ever higher forms of vegetable and animal life until the appearance of man, where the history of the New Past now carries us over to the familiar epochs of European history. In this way the New Past would enable us to link up the career of man with that of the physical universe out of which he seems to have emerged. The outline history of the universe

[1] *The Scientific Monthly*, October, 1919, p. 289.

which I have suggested already exists in the series of lecture courses on evolution, known as the William Ellery Hale lectures, though some of these courses still remain unpublished, and what was done in those lectures before the National Academy of Sciences at Washington might also be done in every university in the form of a series of courses under the general title "Evolution," or "Summary of Evolution." The series might well dominate the whole curriculum, and through the courses on history, with which it would be concluded, lead naturally over to studies in literature and art as the final culture courses in a curriculum which would furnish a broader type of education than any now offered by our universities here or abroad.

In such a historical correlation of the career of man with the secular processes of our earth, and the universe about it, the New Past, as we have already observed, forms an indispensable link; but it is a link of which we have recovered thus far only scanty fragments. An enormous amount of laborious exploration and research still remains to be done. Last winter while in Cairo I had the privilege of studying some new fragments of the earliest known royal annals in any language—a black diorite slab, of which a fragment had long been known in the museum of Palermo. Although the new Cairo fragments had been recently twice published, an exhaustive examination disclosed a hitherto unnoticed dynasty or group of ten Pharaohs ruling over predynastic Egypt—a dynasty before the dynasties. The black stone slab on which these oldest known royal annals were written some forty-five hundred years ago had originally been set up in some temple, perhaps at Memphis. When the building perished, the block had been re-used in another building as a threshold, and generations of human feet had gradually worn down the inscribed records until in many places only the faintest glimmerings of the disappearing signs were discernible. It is no reflection upon the two successive editors and publishers that important new facts were still to be wrung from it, and that a third publication is necessary; but I have referred to the incident because it so well illustrates the situation throughout the range of study of the New Past, whether in the field or in the museums. Many a block like that, with its precious message from the ancient life of man, lies out yonder in the Near Orient awaiting discovery and rescue from destruction. I have stood in the gates of an ancient city of Assyria, which was flourishing in the days when the Hebrews of the eighth century B.C. were still fighting to repel the Assyrian yoke, and I have seen the modern natives scrape away with little more than their hands a slight covering of earth

which concealed a vast block of alabaster bearing magnificently carved royal annals marching in imposing lines of large and stately cuneiform across the up-turned face of the block. We thrust back the earth again to cover and protect the venerable document, and there it still lies, undoubtedly along with many of its kind in the other city gates, awaiting recovery to enrich the halls of some modern museum and to fill some one of the many gaps in our knowledge of the New Past.

As we look out over the Eastern Hemisphere, with its great central nucleus of Egypto-Babylonian culture on each side of the intercontinental bridge, and realize that these birth-lands of civilization are now opened to unrestricted investigation by the collapse of the Ottoman Empire, it is evident that there rises before us an opportunity unprecedented in the history of humanistic research. There lie the documents which will enable us to complete the vast synthesis first erected by Darwin, by which we may eventually completely link up the historic past of man with the geological ages that lie behind the human career. In the whole length and breadth of humanistic research there is no other field of investigation which so kindles the imagination, or may be compared with it in imposing range and far-reaching importance.

With few exceptions the men engaged in such researches in America have been university teachers in a department organized to teach languages, like the traditional departments of Greek and Latin. But the lure which has drawn most of us into this field has been the opportunity of aiding in the inspiring task of recovering a great group of lost civilizations. It is obvious that the orientalist who is also a university teacher is as unable single-handed to meet the requirements of a situation like this as would be the astronomer if he were obliged to undertake the study of the celestial world without his observatory or his staff of assistants.

The response of the University of Chicago to this situation has been the establishment of a laboratory for historical research in the early career of man, which has been called the Oriental Institute. The original documents indispensable to the researches of the Institute lie in distant lands and far-away museums. One of the purposes of the Oriental Institute, therefore, was to provide for occasional journeys to the Near Orient for the study or copying of new documents acquired by other museums and the acquisition of new and original monuments for our own collections.

Returning from nearly a year's absence in the Near East on the first expedition of our Oriental Institute, it is more than a pleasure on this

Convocation Day to be accorded the opportunity thus publicly to set forth the place which I believe the field of oriental research is destined to occupy in the sum of human knowledge, and to suggest that the work of the University of Chicago in this field has perhaps outgrown indulgent toleration at the hands of facetious colleagues who have sometimes referred to it as the "mummy department." For it is a source of great pride to be able to report that the University of Chicago has already made a large place for herself in the ancient lands of the Near Orient. This is due primarily to the visit of our honored president to Baghdad and Persia, and the administrative efficiency and diplomatic skill with which he discharged his difficult task of distributing American bounty for the relief of the starving multitudes of Persia. I will spare his proverbial modesty the repetition of any of the frequent expressions of regard for him and admiration for his work which I heard from the lips of the leading British administrators and commanders in the Near Orient. It is a gratification also to be able to report that our Oriental Institute expedition has been able to establish connections which insure to the University of Chicago, if she desires it, an important share in the future of scientific research in the Near Orient.

Co-operation with both British and French will be easily arranged. This is especially true in the case of the British, now in control of Mesopotamia and Palestine, a very large portion of the Near Orient. Unexpected reasons have contributed to this result. The University of Chicago expedition was the first group of white men or non-Moslems to cross the Arab state of King Faisal from Baghdad to the Mediterranean. Since the proclamation of the new Arab dominions, our expedition was privileged to be the first to bear the American flag across them from the Persian Gulf to Aleppo, Damascus, and Beyrut. The observations made by the expedition on the modern conditions were considered of such value by Lord Allenby that he informed the British government of the facts we had gathered among the Arabs and asked that they be personally reported to the Prime Minister and the Foreign Office. Although we were not expecting to return to America by way of London, this was done, and a purely archaeological and historical expedition of this University was thus able to render service to the British government. We have therefore every reason to expect a continuance of the cordial support of the British in any of our future efforts in these regions.

Indeed, if the necessary means to carry on the work can be made available, the foundation has been laid and the opportunity is open before us for the achievement of a vast body of results in the study of

the human career, and the acquisition of an unparalleled body of infinitely precious records of the New Past such as few American institutions can hope to rival. It remains only for us to "go up and possess the land." The expedition brings back with it a great collection of ancient monuments, records, and works of art, which had been accumulating in the hands of native antiquity dealers during the war. Valuable as this collection is, and it contains a number of monuments of which the like has never before been brought to America, and in some cases even to Europe, nevertheless all this is but a suggestion of what may be recovered and brought back to enrich our collections and the archives of the Oriental Institute, if its work expands as it should and it is enabled to strike the spade deep into those great treasuries of ancient human life, the mounds which cover the ancient cities of the Near East. The obstruction of such work on the part of the Ottoman Empire, once in control in these regions, has given way, except in portions of Asia Minor, to cordial co-operation on the part of enlightened European governments, chiefly British and French.

Upon the shoulders of American orientalists must largely fall the responsibility for the recovery of the lost chapters in the career of man. A profound sense of this obligation makes it far more than a pleasure to be able thus publicly to express the keen appreciation and the compelling inspiration to new achievement felt by the Department of Oriental Languages in the presence of the new vista of usefulness now expanding before it. We owe all this to the sympathetic and never-failing support of the plans of the department by our far-seeing President and our broad-minded Board of Trustees in approving and furthering the organization of the Oriental Institute, made possible by the generosity of a long-proved friend of the University, Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr. Such enlightened support is equipping the University of Chicago to carry her full share of American responsibility in recovering the lost chapters of the New Past, which the impoverished condition of the European peoples and governments throws upon us as a result of the Great War. No more noticeable example of the lack of resources to support this work could be cited than the empty treasury of the British School of Archaeology at Jerusalem, an institution established at a place and in a land hallowed by such associations that it was believed great sums would be easily obtainable for its support. Imagine our surprise on reaching Jerusalem to find the British School almost without funds, several years after its organization. Sir Arthur Evans, perhaps the leading British archaeologist, recently president of the British Associa-

tion for the Advancement of Science, and for five years president of the London Society of Antiquaries, has publicly announced the failure of an effort to secure the funds for the establishment of a permanent British Institute of Archaeology in Egypt, maintained by the government.[1]

This announcement by the illustrious British scientist of the failure of his effort, although supported by all the great learned societies of Great Britain, finally quenches every hope of British governmental support of scientific researches in the Near Orient for many years to come.

What is true of Great Britain is likewise true of the continental governments, though not for lack of interest and willingness to aid, but because of depleted treasuries. I have found officials of some of the leading scientific institutions of Europe almost pathetically eager to make some form of combination with American efforts in the Near Orient, by which their meager resources might be supplemented by our supposably more ample funds, in order to compass some of the larger enterprises which they refuse to relinquish to us, but to achieve which they have neither the men nor the money. It is needless to add that we cannot expect any support of such work by the government of the United States. We can look solely to our American men of means for the funds to carry on these researches.

The great centers of human life in the ancient world, the mighty cities and capitals of Babylonia, Assyria, Persia, Palestine, Syria, Asia Minor, and Egypt, the region where the earliest civilized societies arose out of savagery and barbarism to bring civilization to barbarian Europe—all these treasuries of human records which are rapidly perishing in the whole region about the eastern end of the Mediterranean lie there silently awaiting the spade of the excavator. I have seen the ruined capitals of the ancient East slumbering under their gloomy mounds at sunset, and many a time as the sun arose and dispelled the shadows it has seemed as if the banished life that once ebbed and flowed through those now rubbish-covered and dismantled streets must start forth again, till with a regret so poignant that it was almost physical pain I have realized the years that must elapse before these silent mounds can be made to speak again and reveal all the splendid pageant of the New Past which transformed our father-man from savagery in some remote cavern where at most he could count five by the aid of his fingers into a godlike creature who reached out to the stars on those Babylonian plains and made the first computations which have at length enabled us to plumb the vast deeps of the universe.

[1] *Proceedings of the Society of Antiquaries*, Sec. Ser., XXXI (1919), 190.

Before the whole recoverable story drawn out of every available mound is in our hands, it may indeed be a century or two; but after a survey of most of the important buried cities of the Near Orient, I am confident that with sufficient funds and adequate personnel it will be possible in the next twenty-five or thirty years, or let us say within a generation, to clear up the leading ancient cities of Western Asia and to recover and preserve for future study the vast body of human records which they contain. In this way the main lines of the development can be followed in the larger sites, marking the leading homes of ancient men and governments. I cannot but see in the recovery and study of this incomparable body of evidence America's greatest opportunity in humanistic research and discovery.

On a day like this, in the presence of a large group of our young people who are about to leave us and take up the more serious responsibilities of life, such a retrospect as we have made is the more fitting in view of the fact that the field of research which it presents is so vast and the investigators so limited in numbers. "The harvest indeed is great, but the laborers are few" and we need recruits. For the young man—yes, and for the young woman too—who may be interested in humanistic research, no field of investigation is more inviting or offers greater opportunities. The inspiring task which confronts America in the Near East cannot be achieved without the aid of a new generation of young Americans who are willing to spend the years necessary to gain the training and equipment without which the work cannot be done. Such young people may look forward to a life-work of absorbing interest and of ideal usefulness to science, coupled with a living return for labor achieved. Great opportunities await the young scholars and scientists in this field. It will be a life of some sacrifices. Those who elect to undertake it must set their faces to the East, feeling a deep reverence for the life of man on the earth, and highly resolving to devote their all to this new crusade. To such spirits it will not be irksome to dwell among memories of the past; to them the recovery of the unfolding life of man will not be a toilsome task, but rather a joyful quest, the modern quest for the Grail, from which arduous journeys and weary exile in distant lands will not deter us. For in this crusade of modern scientific endeavor in the Near Orient we know, what the first crusaders could not yet discern, that we are returning to ancestral shores. And in the splendor of that buoyant life of the human soul which has somehow come up out of the impenetrable deeps of past ages and risen so high, they shall find a glorious prophecy of its supreme future.

THE PRESIDENT'S CONVOCATION STATEMENT

THE CONVOCATION ORATOR

The address with which we have been favored today has been given by one of our own Faculty who for the past year has been engaged in a very interesting and important investigation in Egypt, Mesopotamia, Arabia, and Syria. We rejoice that he has returned safely from his arduous journey and congratulate him on the success which has attended his efforts in the interests of Archaeology and especially of the Haskell Oriental Museum. We thank Professor Breasted for his service today and look forward to still greater attainment from him in the Oriental Department for the University and for the world.

THE SUMMER QUARTER

The quarter just closing has been on the whole perhaps the most successful summer in the history of the University. It is only fair to say that the Summer Quarter as a regular part of university work was initiated by the University of Chicago in 1894, and has proved so successful and reasonable a method of using university facilities as to have been adopted by a number of other institutions. Summer schools, of course, have existed elsewhere for many years. Our Summer Quarter is not a summer school.

The attendance this summer has reached and somewhat surpassed the phenomenal record of the summer of 1916. At that time the total attendance of different students for the Summer Quarter was 5,404. This summer it is 5,406. The exceptionally large attendance of 1916 was due to special circumstances which it was not anticipated would unusual circumstances. It is of interest to note that of the 5,406 recur in the immediate future. The attendance this year is due to no students in attendance 2,080 are graduate students and 2,150 are in the professional schools of Divinity, Law, Medicine, Education, and Commerce and Administration. It may be added that all of the departments speak of the exceptional quality of the students, who, in fact, comprise a large number of teachers, including many from college faculties. It is believed that the Summer Quarter of the University is rendering a large benefit to the educational work of the country.

THE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SERVICE ADMINISTRATION

An interesting feature of the past summer has been the establishment by the Board of Trustees of a new curriculum of graduate work under the head of the School of Social Service Administration, which is in succession to the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, for many years maintained as an independent organization in Chicago, and which under the unselfish direction of Dr. Graham Taylor and of his able staff has rendered an excellent service. The following letter from a special committee of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, formally approved by the Trustees of that School will explain the situation.

August 4, 1920

BOARD OF TRUSTEES
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Acting in behalf of the Trustees of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, we whose names are undersigned are authorized to submit for your consideration the following statement and proposals:

For several years the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy has existed for the purpose of providing facilities for the training of students who desire to enter the field of social work and civic service. The work has in the past been experimental and there have been many groups of students received and cared for.

The most important part of the training, however, has been that provided for college graduates, and the Trustees of the School are convinced that the methods and principles applicable to this portion of their work have been so well developed that it would now be wise to have this graduate training carried on under University auspices rather than under those of a separate organization.

They therefore propose:

1. That the University of Chicago establish a graduate professional curriculum for training students who desire to enter this field; in so doing they desire to make it a matter of record that in their judgment such a curriculum can fulfil the demands of the situation only if it be given under conditions of administrative unity characteristic of professional schools, if the classroom work is supplemented by "field work" and skilled placement of graduates, and if the high quality of the student body is assured by the provision of scholarships and fellowships.

2. That the Trustees of the University of Chicago are to regard these proposals as contingent upon the receipt of guaranties of not less than $25,000 a year for the period of five years to be paid to the University of Chicago as may be stipulated.

JULIUS ROSENWALD, *Trustee*
SOPHONISBA BRECKINRIDGE
GRAHAM TAYLOR,
Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy
Committee

The fund of $25,000 per year was subscribed by the following persons: Mrs. Emmons Blaine, Mr. Charles R. Crane, Mr. Morton B. Hull,

Mr. Edward L. Ryerson, Mr. Julius Rosenwald, Mr. Harold H. Swift. The American Red Cross, The Jewish Charities of Chicago, The United Charities of Chicago.

The balance remaining if any is underwritten by Mrs. Emmons Blaine, Mrs. Arthur T. Aldis, Mr. Edward L. Ryerson, and Mr. Julius Rosenwald.

The University has for many years maintained as a branch of the School of Commerce and Administration what has been called the Philanthropic Service Division, which has had a similar purpose to that of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. At the same time the School has not been provided with sufficient funds to carry it on as a graduate school with adequate professional training and field-work. On the other hand the departments of the University open a field of instruction beyond the capacity of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. It seemed therefore to the Board of Trustees of the University of Chicago that the very generous and humane suggestion of the Trustees of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy and of the financial guarantors should be accepted.

It was believed that, under the direction of the University and with the aid of the funds and experience provided by the friends of the School, this excellent service should be rendered even better than has heretofore been the case either with the University or with the School. Accordingly at the August meeting of the Board the plan was adopted for the establishment of a graduate professional curriculum for students in Civics and Philanthropy to be known as the School of Social Service Administration. Under the Deanship of Professor Leon Carrol Marshall, Dean of the School of Commerce and Administration, the new School has been organized and will be fully in operation by the first of October. The University in undertaking this new and extended task for the service of humanity is indebted, not only to those whose financial gifts made the work possible, but to the generous spirit of those connected with the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, and extends to them its thanks as well as to the guarantors. The purpose of the University is to serve mankind in education and in the advancement of knowledge and the Board of Trustees confidently believes that the new School will render a service worthy of the University and worthy of the city of Chicago.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

By J. SPENCER DICKERSON, *Secretary*

APPOINTMENTS

In addition to reappointments the following appointments have been made by the Board of Trustees:

Edgar J. Goodspeed, Secretary to the President.

David Allan Robertson, Dean of the Colleges of Arts, Literature, and Science.

Leon Carroll Marshall, Dean of the School of Social Service Administration.

Charles H. Judd, Chairman of the Department of Psychology.

F. A. Kingsbury, Assistant Professor in the Department of Psychology.

E. S. Robinson, Assistant Professor in the Department of Psychology.

William Berry, Instructor in the Department of Psychology.

G. T. Buswell, Assistant Professor in the Department of Education.

N. B. Henry, Instructor in the Department of Education.

Frances Gillespie, Associate in the Department of History.

Warren F. Woodring, Associate in the Department of History.

L. W. Mints, Instructor in the Department of Political Economy.

Gildo Masso, Instructor in Spanish in the Junior College.

John C. Ransmeier, Instructor in Spanish in the Junior College.

Henry B. Siems, Lecture Associate in the Department of Chemistry.

Zonja E. Wallen, Associate in the Department of Chemistry.

Lillian Eichelberger, Associate in the Department of Chemistry.

Lester R. Dragstedt, Assistant Professor in the Department of Physiology.

Otto F. Bond, Assistant Professor in the Junior College.

Robert Winter, Assistant Professor in the Junior College.

W. E. Gouwens, Associate in the Department of Hygiene and Bacteriology.

N. P. Hudson, Associate in the Department of Hygiene and Bacteriology.

Florence McArdle, Instructor in the Department of Physical Culture.

Amelia Wylie, Instructor in the Department of Physical Culture.

Mary M. Melcher, on the Library Staff with rank of Associate.

Ernest W. Puttkammer, Instructor in the Law School.

Albert M. Kales, Professorial Lecturer in the Law School.

John B. Ellis, Instructor in the College of Education.

L. H. Sandhusen, Instructor in the School of Education.

Ella C. McKenney, Instructor in the Department of Home Economics, School of Education.

Mary Koll, Instructor in the Department of Home Economics, School of Education.

Inez Boyce, Instructor in the Department of Home Economics in the College of Education.

Ethel Coe, Instructor in the Department of Art in the College of Education.

Paul M. Atkins, Instructor in the School of Commerce and Administration.

Garfield V. Cox, Instructor in the School of Commerce and Administration.

P. H. Douglas, Assistant Professor in the School of Commerce and Administration.

Willard E. Atkins, Instructor in the School of Commerce and Administration.

Edith Abbott, Associate Professor in the School of Social Service Administration.

Sophonisba Preston Breckinridge, Associate Professor in the School of Social Service Administration.

Erle F. Young, Instructor in the School of Social Service Administration.

Elizabeth F. Dixon, Supervisor of Field Work in the School of Social Service Administration.

Harrison B. Ash, Teacher in the Department of Latin, University High School.

J. Earl Conn, Teacher in the Department of Social Science, University High School.

H. Beatrice Krum, Teacher in the Department of Mathematics, University High School.

Elmer C. Stauffer, Teacher in the Department of English, University High School.

Jane E. Hyde, Teacher in the Department of Home Economics, University High School.

Ernest F. Hanes, Teacher in the University High School.

Abbie S. Belden, Teacher in the University High School.
Winifred O. Jones, Teacher in the Elementary School.
M. Ethel Brown, Teacher in the Elementary School.
Isabel Robinson, Teacher in the Elementary School.
Helen S. Harris, Teacher in the Elementary School.
Helen F. Cook, Teacher in the Elementary School.
Delia Kibbe, Teacher in the Elementary School.
Helen Nicklaus, Teacher in the Elementary School.

LEAVE OF ABSENCE

Leave of absence has been granted to Emery T. Filbey, Assistant Professor in the Department of Industrial Education in the School of Education, for three quarters, from October 1, 1920. He will serve as traveling inspector of vocational schools under the United States Department of Labor, Junior Division.

PROMOTIONS

The following members of the Faculties have received, by action of the Board of Trustees, a promotion in rank:

Associate Professor Frank N. Freeman, to a professorship in the Department of Educational Psychology.

Associate Professor Marcus W. Jernegan, to a professorship in the Department of History.

Instructor Albert E. Haydon, to an assistant professorship in the Department of Comparative Religion.

Assistant Professor Theodore L. Neff, to an associate professorship in the Department of Romance.

Associate Benjamin H. Willier, to an instructorship in the Department of Zoölogy.

Assistant Professor David J. Lingle, to an associate professorship in the Department of Physiology.

Associate H. M. Weeter, to an instructorship in the Department of Hygiene and Bacteriology.

Instructor Margaret Burns, to an assistant professorship in the Department of Physical Culture.

Assistant Lillian R. Marshall, to an instructorship in the Department of Physical Culture.

Instructor Gertrude E. Halliday, to an assistant professorship in the Department of Home Economics, College of Education.

RESIGNATIONS

The Board of Trustees has accepted the resignations of the following members of the Faculties:

Robert M. Lovett, as Dean of the Junior Colleges.

W. J. Crozier, Assistant Professor in the Department of Zoölogy. He becomes head of the department of zoölogy in Rutgers College.

F. T. Rogers, Assistant Professor in the Department of Physiology. He becomes head of the department of physiology in Baylor University Medical School, Waco, Texas.

STANDING COMMITTEES OF THE BOARD

At the meeting of the Board of Trustees held July 13, 1920, the President of the Board appointed the following standing committees which were subsequently confirmed by the Board:

Committee on Finance and Investment: Messrs. Howard G. Grey, Chairman, Julius Rosenwald, Vice-Chairman, A. C. Bartlett, C. L. Hutchinson, Jesse A. Baldwin.

Committee on Buildings and Grounds: Messrs. C. L. Hutchinson, Chairman, Jesse A. Baldwin, Vice-Chairman, Harold F. McCormick, Howard G. Grey, T. E. Donnelley.

Committee on Instruction and Equipment: Messrs. Charles R. Holden, Chairman, Harold H. Swift, Vice-Chairman, A. C. Bartlett, F. W. Parker, Charles W. Gilkey.

Committee on Press and Extension: Messrs. T. E. Donnelley, Chairman, F. W. Parker, Vice-Chairman, Willard A. Smith, E. B. Felsenthal, R. L. Scott.

Committee on Audit and Securities: Messrs. R. L. Scott, Chairman, E. B. Felsenthal, Vice-Chairman, W. A. Smith, C. R. Holden, Wilber E. Post.

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SERVICE ADMINISTRATION

In response to the request of the Trustees of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, who had come to the conclusion that its work could be better perpetuated under university supervision and in a university environment, the Board of Trustees has voted to establish at the University a graduate professional curriculum for students in civics and philanthropy. This school will be known as the Graduate School of Social Service Administration. The School of Civics and Philanthropy has existed in Chicago for a number of years for the

purpose of providing facilities for the training of students who desire to enter the field of social work and civic service. It ceases now to exist, and the University will provide for the training of students in this specialized field under University auspices and with University standards. The Trustees of the School of Civics and Philanthropy have generously guaranteed funds for the continuance of the work.

The Committee on Instruction and Equipment was given power to proceed with the organization of the new curriculum, and at the meeting of the Board held September 14, 1920, a budget for its expenses was adopted and members of its Faculty were appointed. Professor Leon Carroll Marshall was appointed to the deanship of the School.

DEAN OF COLLEGES

At the meeting of the Trustees held July 13, 1920, the University Statutes were amended so as to provide for a Dean of the Colleges, which action represents not only the appointment of a new administrative officer but the inauguration of a new policy with reference to a much-needed supervision of work in the Colleges. The new Dean, elected July 13, 1920, is David Allan Robertson, who since 1906 has served as Secretary to the President of the University.

UNIVERSITY COMMISSIONS

The Board of Trustees at its meeting held July 13, 1920, adopted a University statute which creates what are to be known as University Commissions. The statute is as follows:

Section 1. The University Commissions shall include commissions for the following departments or groups of the University:

a) The Law School

b) The Undergraduate Medical School

c) The Graduate Medical School

d) The Divinity School

e) The School of Education

f) The School of Commerce and Administration

g) Colleges of Arts, Literature, and Science

h) Women's Interests

i) Historical Group (Political Economy, Political Science, History, Sociology, and Anthropology).

j) Modern Language Group

k) Classical Language Group

l) Physics, Chemistry, and Mathematics

m) Geology and Geography

n) Biological Group (Zoölogy, Anatomy, Physiology, Botany, Pathology, Hygiene and Bacteriology)

Section 2. Object: To promote the interests of the University by

a) Fostering a closer relationship between the alumni and the University

b) Developing a closer relationship between the Faculties and Trustees

c) Developing more actively the interest of representative Chicagoans in the University.

Duties: It shall be the duty of each commission to study the work of its school or group, and from time to time to make suggestions to the Board of Trustees as to manner and means of improving the work of the school or group. These suggestions shall be sent to the Board of Trustees through the President of the University, who shall transmit them to the Board with his recommendations.

Section 3. Membership: Each commission shall be composed of:

a) Two alumni

b) Two or more residents of Chicago or vicinity not connected in an official capacity with the University

c) Two members of the Faculty (except as provided for in note)

d) One member of the Board of Trustees, and an alternate Trustee.

NOTE.—Where one commission is provided for two departments, one faculty member of the commission shall be appointed from each department. If the group is composed of more than two departments, then one member shall be added from the faculty to represent each additional department.

Section 4. Method of appointing members and term of office:

a) One alumnus member shall be elected by the Alumni Council and one shall be appointed by the President of the Board of Trustees, upon recommendation of the President of the University.

b) Resident-of-Chicago members shall be appointed by the President of the Board of Trustees, upon recommendation of the President of the University.

c) Faculty members shall be appointed by the President of the Board of Trustees, upon recommendation of the President of the University, and whenever practical shall be the head of a department or Dean closely associated with one of the departments.

d) The Trustee member and his alternate shall be appointed by the President of the Board of Trustees.

e) Upon the inauguration of the commissions, the faculty members, the alumni members, and the resident members shall be appointed alternately for one year and two years; thereafter, all appointments and elections, except to fill unexpired terms, shall be for the term of two years.

f) When vacancies occur, a member shall be appointed or elected to fill the unexpired term in the same manner as his predecessor.

Section 5. Meetings:

a) Each commission shall meet at least once each quarter, except the Summer Quarter, and at least one meeting each year shall be with the teaching force of all departments or groups represented. There shall be at least one joint meeting of all commissions and the Board of Trustees of the University during the Spring Quarter of each year.

b) Special meetings may be called in accordance with such regulations as may be provided by the commissions or upon the call of the chairman of the commission.

Section 6. Officers: Each commission shall elect a chairman and a secretary annually, during the Spring Quarter.

Section 7. Members ex officio: The President of the University shall be ex officio member of each commission.

The members of the several commissions have not been appointed as yet.

DINNERS TO COMMISSIONS AND FACULTIES

The Board of Trustees hereafter will give a dinner annually to members of the Faculties during the Autumn Quarter. The first of these dinners, which takes the place of the customary annual "home-coming" dinner of the Faculties, was held October 4. The Trustees, during the Spring Quarter each year, will give a dinner to the members of the University Commissions recently created.

UNIVERSITY JOURNALS

The Board of Trustees, in view of the steadily increasing cost of publishing the several University journals, and in view of the limited amount of funds available as subsidy for their publication, at its meeting held July 13, 1920, voted to reduce the number of issues of certain journals during the year, to reduce the number of pages in each issue of others, and in certain instances to increase the subscription price. The details of these changes are printed respectively in each journal.

MISCELLANEOUS

The Board of Trustees, in view of the extraordinary opportunities in Egypt and Mesopotamia for securing rare material for Haskell Oriental Museum, authorized Mr. J. H. Breasted, Director of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, to purchase suitable objects to the amount of $50,000, half of this amount being provided by a liberal friend of the University. Mr. Breasted, who has returned to the University, is supervising the installation of material which has already arrived at the Museum.

The Board of Trustees has appropriated $5,000 for purchase of books in France through the librarian of Northwestern University, who is now in Europe, and $5,000 for the purchase of material in Europe and Asia for the University Libraries.

Owing to the largely increased amount of work now centering in the office of the Secretary of the Board of Trustees, the office of Assistant Secretary has been created. Mr. John F. Moulds, the University Cashier, on September 14, 1920, was elected Assistant Secretary. Mr. W. J. Mather has been appointed Assistant Cashier.

Mr. Ira Melville Smith, for the past eleven years Assistant Registrar and Examiner at the University of Illinois, has been appointed Assistant Examiner of the University. Mr. Smith entered upon his new duties at the University August 1.

FREDERICK A. SMITH

By THOMAS W. GOODSPEED

I first became acquainted with Fred A. Smith sixty years ago when he was a boy of sixteen. From 1860 to 1862 we were students together in the first University of Chicago. Ten years later he was one of my parishioners in the Second Baptist Church of Chicago. A few years later, and thereafter for the rest of his life, a period of forty years, we were associates on four boards of trustees, first of the Baptist Union Theological Seminary, and later of Rush Medical College, the Chicago Manual Training School Association, and the present University of Chicago. It was only because I was four hundred miles away in the wilderness of northern Wisconsin at the time of his death that I could not, as he desired, speak at the funeral of my long-time friend. It will therefore be easily understood that the preparation of this sketch of Judge Smith's life is a labor of love. He and I were friends from that autumn day in 1860 when we first met until the day of his death in 1919, a period of fifty-nine years.

It was a member of the great Smith family who planted the first colony of white men in the new world. Ever since the days of Captain John Smith there have been Smiths in America in ever-growing numbers. More than fifty thousand of them represented our country in the recent world-war. That branch of this great family to which Judge Smith belonged came to the West from Washington County, New York, one of the easternmost counties of the state, lying east of Lake George and the Hudson. They were among the pioneer farmers of Cook County, Illinois.

The wooded regions of southern Illinois were settled long before the prairies of the north. One of the chief reasons for this was the late lingering of hostile Indians in the northern part of the state. They did not take their departure till 1835 and 1836, and even after the last large migration many scattered families remained behind. For nearly twenty years after Illinois was admitted into the Union as a state the Indians possessed the northern half of it. But there were two other reasons why the settlement of the prairies of the north lagged behind that of the forest-covered areas of the southern part of the state. The

first was the curious hallucination that the soil of the prairies was not fertile. How, men demanded, could a soil that would not grow trees be expected to produce crops? The other reason was that the sod of the prairies was so thick and tough that it could not be broken up by the light plow of a hundred years ago. It was not till long after the opening of the nineteenth century that a steel plow was devised strong enough to break up the soil of a wild prairie farm. As soon, however, as that was done and the extraordinary fertility of the soil demonstrated, the rumor of its richness was spread abroad and the farmers of the east began to flock to the prairies of northern Illinois.

Both because of this migration and in order to encourage it, the general government established a land office in Chicago and a great sale of public lands was advertised throughout the country to be held in that frontier settlement in the spring and summer of 1835. Chicago was then an insignificant village of about 2,000 people, built along the Chicago River, between its forks and Fort Dearborn, which was still a military post, and which quite cut the small hamlet off from Lake Michigan. Half the buildings or more were still built of logs. It was a forlorn, straggling frontier settlement, with almost no well-defined streets or sidewalks, the level of the land so little above that of the river that in the spring floods, the water of the muddy stream filled the drainage ditches and made the village site little better than a swamp.

But in the early thirties the little village had some enterprising citizens, among whom were Gurdon S. Hubbard, P. F. W. Peck, Eli B. Williams, Silas B. Cobb, and Philo Carpenter.

The year 1835 is a most important one in the early history of the town. During that year the population more than doubled, increasing from less than 2,000 in January to more than 3,000 in December. Probably fifty men who later became prominent in the growing city made it their home in 1835. Among them were William B. Ogden, Arthur G. Burley, Thomas (Judge) Drummond, Abram and Stephen F. Gale, Elijah M. Haines, Tuthill King, Edward Manierre, Julian S. Rumsey, J. Young Scammon, John Turner, Seth Wadhams, and others who long remained leading citizens in the rising metropolis.

But the great events of 1835 in the history of Chicago were the sale of farm lands by the government and the birth of the real estate boom in the village itself. The land office was opened on the first of June. Immigrants intending to settle in any part of the district of northern Illinois had to buy their farms at the Chicago office. There was "an immediate and immense influx of people desiring to enter lands."

From June 1 to the end of the year 370,043 acres of farm lands were sold at $1.25 an acre. There were more than 20,000 purchasers. Among these was Gustavus V. Smith, the first representative of the Smiths of Washington County, New York, who entered land on the "Ridge," in Jefferson township, only ten miles northwest of Chicago at that time—now a part of the city itself.

Gustavus sent back to the family such favorable accounts of the new country that in March, 1836, two brothers, Israel G. and Marcellus, packed their few belongings (they were young and unmarried) into a primitive sort of sleigh known as a pung or jumper, drawn by two horses, and started on the thousand-mile journey for the new world of the West. They traveled from thirty to forty miles a day and, taking their way from Buffalo through Canada, though the winter was ending, the sleighing continued good. As they were nearing Detroit, however, the pung which had lasted astonishingly well, finally gave out. It was abandoned, the baggage loaded on the horses, and the last third of the journey was made on horseback.

The two boys reached their destination on April 10, 1836. When they came in sight of their brother's home they were astonished to find the whole country east of the "Ridge" under water as far as they could see. A great spring freshet was on. The north branch of the Chicago River had overflowed its banks and the whole country was inundated; that is, the whole country east of the "Ridge." The "Ridge" itself stood fifteen or twenty feet above the flood. It must have been a welcome sight to the weary travelers. Many miles in length, covered with groves of oak, it is a most attractive feature in that prairie country. It is not strange that Israel Smith decided that his farm must run across it and include some of those groves. The great sale of farm lands was still on. In 1836, 202,364 acres were sold. Everyone bought as near Chicago as he could, and thus Cook County, after a start was once made, was soon filled with farmers.

Israel G. Smith, one of the brothers who made the journey just described, was the father of Judge Smith, the subject of this sketch. Born in 1816, he was twenty years old when he settled in Illinois, and perhaps twenty-one when he secured his farm. Buying it at the Chicago land office, he held it by a warrant from the government, and the title is one of the few titles in Cook County that have been transferred but once during the last eighty-four years.

The Smith brothers were very fortunate in the location of their farms. They came early enough to buy near Chicago, and enjoy

the enhancement in values attending proximity to the future great city. No one, indeed, then dreamed of what Chicago has since become. But though a small town in the thirties of the last century, to the farmers who settled near, it supplied a convenient market for whatever they could raise and in its stores they could buy whatever they needed. They thus escaped many of the privations and hardships of those pioneers who settled far away from markets and centers of supply. They had another advantage. They were near neighbors, and other farmers soon occupied the surrounding country. Their father quickly followed them to their new home. In 1837 John Pennoyer and the following year his sons, Stephen and James Pennoyer, became part of the community. Mancel Talcott, later well known in Chicago, was also one of this pioneer group.

In 1838 the Smith brothers, Mr. Talcott, and others held a meeting at the house of John Pennoyer to consider their need of a school and after a full discussion voted that "all adult male citizens, including bachelors, should each contribute five dollars to purchase lumber for a schoolhouse." The assessment was paid, the lumber bought, and all the able-bodied members of the community assembled with their tools and built the schoolhouse, one of the first, if not the very first, erected in the county outside of Chicago. No sooner was it finished than a school was opened, the first teacher being Susan, a daughter of John Pennoyer, who was thus one of the earliest country school teachers of northern Illinois. She did not, however, long remain with the school, leaving it to become the wife of Israel Smith.

The Pennoyers were an English family some members of which were men of wealth in the old country. William Pennoyer, a merchant of London nearly three hundred years ago, is said to have been a liberal contributor to the funds of Harvard College. His brother Robert came to the new world in 1635 and from him descended the branch of the family to which Susan, the mother of Judge Smith, belonged. In 1648 Robert Pennoyer made his home in Stamford, in the southwest corner of Connecticut, and that place long remained the principal home of the family. But a hundred years ago John, the father of Susan Pennoyer, left the old home for the western frontier. He had within him the urge of the pioneer and in 1818 took his family to Cayuga County in central New York. But this did not prove to be near enough the frontier, and nineteen years later, in 1837, he joined the colony of farmers in Cook County, Illinois, and there tasted the joys and experienced some of the privations of life on the real frontier. He and his sons were men of intelligence and public spirit, apparently leading the

community in the movement to provide the first schoolhouse in which his daughter Susan taught the first school.

At about the time the schoolhouse was built, ground for a cemetery was purchased and the first burial in it was that of Henry, the father of the Smith boys, who survived his arrival in his new home only two or three years.

Israel Smith entered early into the public life of the new community. He was elected justice of the peace at the first election held in Jefferson township. He and his brother-in-law, Stephen Pennoyer, were prominent men for many years. In 1873, in connection with other citizens, they secured with much difficulty the organization of the new township of Norwood Park, now a part of Chicago. I say with much difficulty, for the townships out of which it was carved carried their opposition to the legislature of the state; Stephen Pennoyer was made supervisor of the new township and Israel Smith one of the commissioners of highways and treasurer of the board.

Israel Smith and Susan Pennoyer were married April 13, 1843, by Rev. C. Billings Smith, a well-known clergyman of that day, and pastor of the Tabernacle Baptist Church of Chicago. There was no church near them in the country and they became and remained for many years members of this church. Mr. Smith had a strong leaning toward business, and three or four times during the thirty years following his marriage yielded to this inclination. At one time he conducted a grocery store on State Street and at another a boot and shoestore on Lake Street. These ventures brought his family for brief periods to the city, so that the children were both country and city bred. The great fire of 1871 brought the last of these excursions in merchandising to an end and led to Mr. Smith's final return to the farm. These adventures in business were all of short duration and the farm was the real home of the family for sixty years.

Mr. and Mrs. Smith had seven children, four sons and three daughters, of whom one son and one daughter are now living. Edwin D. Smith still makes his home in Norwood Park, near the place of his birth. One of the daughters, Emma I., married Mr. Henry R. Clissold, a Chicago publisher and editor and one of the most prominent and useful Baptist laymen of Illinois.

The first of this large family of children, the subject of this sketch, was born February 11, 1844. He was named Frederick Augustus, but was generally known as Fred A. Smith. Israel Smith had accomplished his purpose of making the "Ridge" a part of his farm, and it added

wonderfully to the picturesque beauty of his hundred and fifty-odd acres. Owing, doubtless, to discrepancies in old surveys, the farm was a scant quarter-section. The "Ridge," long known as "Smith's Ridge," ran through the farm north and south a few rods from the east line. It was the outstanding feature of a wide region, as, of course, it continues to be. Covered with groves, mostly of oak, but with here and there stately elms and big cottonwoods, it transformed what would otherwise have been a flat, treeless prairie into a diversified and attractive countryside. The "Ridge" made a fine site for the family home, which was surrounded by stately trees and commanded east and west, through the oak openings, extensive views only limited by the distant forests. The surrounding country, except for the ridge itself, was destitute of those natural features in which a boy delights and which so minister to the joy of youth. There were no mountains or hills, no forests, lakes, or streams near at hand. The nearest water was the north branch of the Chicago River and this was three or four miles away. The Des Plaines River on the west was more distant still. The new country was thinly settled in Fred Smith's youth and there were few boys of his age. Their only common meeting place was the schoolhouse. There they found a way, after the manner of boys, to amuse themselves. The schoolhouse, the same in which Mrs. Smith taught before her marriage, was something more than a mile from the home. In the winter the small boy, who had come into the ownership of a pair of skates, often made his way to and from school by the "ditch route" which followed the improved roads, lengthening the distance by half a mile or more but making the journey a lark instead of a labor. Over the door of the 20×30 schoolhouse the boys inscribed in charcoal this legend: "Temple of Knowledge."

Two things unfamiliar to boys of this generation gave interest and variety to Fred's boyhood. Only a short distance north of the farm were the "reservations" assigned by the treaties of 1821 and 1833 to a number of Indian chiefs and their families, and many of the red men still lingered in the neighborhood or occasionally returned to visit their former hunting grounds. They sometimes appeared at the farmhouses and were familiar to the boy in his earlier years.

Then too, the country abounded in game. Prairie chickens and quail were almost without number, as were ducks along the North Branch to the east and the Des Plaines to the west. There were many deer, occasional bears, and the wolves, both prairie and timber wolves, were very numerous. The boy learned the use of a gun. He early developed enterprise and courage, and these experiences of his youth helped to make him the virile man he became.

Being the oldest of the seven children, Fred was the first to become his father's helper on the farm. All the farmwork became familiar to him. It was not altogether drudgery. He early developed a fondness for horses, which he never lost. He took great delight in breaking colts, in which he became very skilful. He was very much at home on the back of a horse and, naturally, fond of riding. His father raised stock and Fred became familiar with the care of all the animals about the farm. As he grew up, the plow and the mowing machine, planting, sowing, cultivating, and harvesting unfolded their mysteries to him. He was in a fair way to become a full-fledged farmer when an event occurred which gave a new direction to his life.

When he was fourteen years old the father took his family to Chicago, perhaps for one of his business ventures in that city. This was in the autumn of 1858. They found a home on the West Side on Jackson Street, between Des Plaines and Halsted streets, a part of the city which, now entirely overrun by business, was then a pleasant district in which to live. Only two blocks away was the old Scammon School, and there Fred had his first experience in a regularly graded school. Chicago's first and at that time only high school was less than a block away from the Scammon, and was an object of such interest and pride to the entire city that the boy, who had reached the age of youthful idealism, began to feel the stirrings of scholarly ambition.

Another event of that period deepened these aspirations. His parents were Baptists. The Tabernacle Baptist Church to which they belonged was only three or four blocks north of their place of residence. The Baptists during those years were engaged in founding the first University of Chicago. In 1856 Senator Stephen A. Douglas had given them a site of ten acres on the South Side at Cottage Grove Avenue and Thirty-fourth Street, and in 1858–59 they were erecting the University building. The churches of the city and country were deeply interested in the movement. A great subscription, for that day, was being raised and every public-spirited Baptist was subscribing. Israel Smith, Fred's father, was among these. The mother had been a teacher and was deeply interested in her oldest son's education. The new University was a frequent subject of conversation in the family. Fred was more and more deeply stirred by an ambition for an education and it came to be understood that he was to be a student in the new institution. He pursued his studies with new interest and about the first of September, 1860, in his seventeenth year, he entered the preparatory department of the University of Chicago. It was then that I first met him. Two and a half years his senior in age, I had entered the University as a

Freshman just a year before. The south wing of the University building had been completed in 1859 and the work of instruction in it began the first week in September of that year.

This south wing, later known as Jones Hall, was a four-story and basement structure of rough-faced limestone, designed for a dormitory, with an extension northward two stories lower. This north extension contained the chapel, three or four recitation rooms, the president's office, and apartments in which President Burroughs and his family lived. Some of the professors and their wives also lived in the building, giving it something of the atmosphere of a home. There was a dining-room in the basement which was entirely above the surface of the ground, well lighted, and spacious.

When young Smith entered the University he found it very much in the country. The street cars, then horse cars, ran on Cottage Grove Avenue only as far south as Thirty-first Street, nearly half a mile north of the University. On Thirty-fifth street, just west of the Avenue, was a small, dingy saloon, appropriately named "The Shades." There was but one building, a small one-story cottage, on Thirty-fifth Street between "The Shades" and State Street, nearly a mile west. There were a few houses to the southeast—Cleaverville—but none to the south or southwest, and only two or three between the University and Thirty-first Street. Across the Avenue from the University was "Okenwald," the Chicago home of Senator Douglas. A fine oak grove covered the ground for several hundred feet on both sides of the Avenue and the whole country south of the University was a region of oak openings, every slight ridge being covered with trees.

The University opened in 1859 in its new building with twenty men in its college classes—eight Sophomores and twelve Freshmen—and one hundred and ten preparatory students. The following year when young Smith entered he found himself one among a hundred and thirty-six in the preparatory department. There were thirty-seven men in college classes. Fred entered college as a Freshman in 1862 in a class of twenty-two. Meantime the Civil War had broken out and every year the army claimed more and more of his classmates, until in 1864 the class was reduced to six. Smith was one of the younger members of the class, having just passed his seventeenth birthday when Fort Sumter was fired on and the war began. Records of his college life are meager, but they are sufficient to indicate the serious way in which he went about it and his standing with his fellow-students. It was during the early years of his college course that he joined the church of which his parents were members. That great pulpit orator, Dr. Nathaniel Colver, was pastor

and welcomed the young collegian into the church. The religious and missionary organization of the University was the Berean Society and of this he became an active member. The largest literary society was the Athenaeum, and he was made its president in his first year. Honors, indeed, clustered thick upon him and he was chosen president of the Freshman class. College athletics were almost unknown and students had to content themselves with primitive baseball. A few adventurous spirits, the Neptune Club, maintained a boat on Lake Michigan. But there was a military company—the University Cadets, the first captain of which lost his life in the war. Fred Smith in his Freshman year was second lieutenant of the company.

In the spring of 1864 Grant began the campaign which resulted in the capture of Richmond and the surrender of Lee, and at the same time Sherman began his advance which culminated in the fall of Atlanta and the march to the sea. All the veterans in the northern armies were needed in these great campaigns, which were intended to end the war and did end it by winning it. To relieve them for this service the governors of Ohio, Indiana, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Illinois tendered to President Lincoln a force of 100,000 men to serve for a hundred days and to garrison necessary posts, repress guerrillas, and maintain order in the occupied areas of the South. Fred Smith immediately volunteered in this force and on May 20, 1864, was sworn into the service at Camp Fry in the North Division of Chicago. It would appear that most of the University Cadets volunteered at the same time. Among them were five of the eleven members of Smith's class. The company they entered was so largely composed of college men that it was called the University Guards. Smith was mustered in on May 27 as a member of the One Hundred Thirty-fourth Regiment, Illinois Infantry, and on June 3 the regiment took the train for Cairo. Remaining there only a few hours, it went down the Mississippi to Columbus, Kentucky, where it remained on duty eight weeks, or more than half its term of service. Smith was made a member of the provost guard, which kept order in the town, arrested disturbers of the peace, and guarded rebel prisoners captured on Island No. 5. This was regarded as a distinction, the members of the guard being carefully chosen from the most reliable and intelligent men. While at Columbus the young soldier learned to swim in the great river, thus correcting one of the defects of his education as a boy.

The first of August the regiment was transferred by river to Paducah, Kentucky, and a week later marched twenty-five miles directly south to Mayfield. Thus by a journey of perhaps two hundred miles on the

Mississippi and Ohio rivers and a short march by land they reached a point less than thirty miles directly east of Columbus, which they had left a week before. Here they remained during the next five weeks of their service. They had some trouble with guerrillas, who were repressed with a strong hand. In these fourteen weeks of service their work had been to garrison and keep in order the western border of Kentucky while Grant was battling his way toward Richmond, and Sherman was driving the Confederate Army out of Atlanta in what his chief characterized as "one of the most memorable campaigns in history."

The hundred-day men had fought no great battles, but they had well performed the task assigned to them, which was considered an essential part of the grand strategy of the general campaign. But the progress of the war showed that they were needed for a much longer period than a hundred days. The genius of Lee and the valor of his troops delayed the final triumph of the Union armies for nearly a year. Every veteran was needed to fill up the depleted ranks. A new army had to be created to drive the Confederates out of Tennessee. It was found impossible to dismiss the hundred-day men at the end of that period. Even after the return of Smith's company to Chicago alarming reports that Price was threatening St. Louis took them posthaste to Missouri for another two weeks of service. As late as October 25 they had not been mustered out, but on that day Smith re-entered the University and resumed his studies. His hundred days of service became before his final release nearly two hundred.

The University of Chicago men who went into the army were not raw recruits. Before the war began, a military company had been organized. Its captain had drilled his command with the greatest zeal, and the students who entered the army were well trained and were prepared from the day of their mustering in for efficient service; many of them became commissioned officers. As has been told, Fred Smith had been a lieutenant of the University Cadets. He was, however, only twenty years old when he became a soldier. He was too young and his service too short to allow him to aspire to a commission in active service in the field. But brief as his experience in the army was, it both tested and benefited him. One of his friends and close associates in the service, now an aged clergyman, has assured me that he was recognized as one of the reliable, upright, Christian men of his company. As the oldest of a large family of brothers and sisters he had already developed self-dependence, manliness, initiative, and all these qualities his military service encouraged and developed. He had lost about three months

out of his university course, but in consideration of his patriotic service was readmitted to his class. He was a good student and was able to go on with his classmates without serious difficulty. The class, which originally numbered twenty-two, had been cut down by the war to eight, and all the classes in the University had been cut down proportionately.

Smith was graduated in 1866. The reporter of the daily paper in writing up the Commencement reveals the changes wrought since that day in graduating exercises. He wrote that the chapel was filled to overflowing and that "the oration on 'The Influence of Climate upon Thought,' delivered by Mr. F. A. Smith, Jefferson, was a truly original production. . . . . At the conclusion of this gentleman's remarks he received the most violent applause and was literally showered with bouquets." Since that day the orations by the graduates and the bouquets have disappeared.

Smith did not belong to that class of ingrates who remember their instructors with nothing better than criticism and belittle the benefits received from their college studies. He looked back on his college course with grateful interest and was one of the most loyal of the alumni of the old University. Long after 1886, when it ceased to exist, he continued to be a faithful attendant at the annual reunions of its former students and was more than once elected president of the Alumni Association.

At the time of his graduation Smith was twenty-two years old. He had already chosen the law as his profession and in the autumn of 1866 entered the Law School of the University, of which Judge Henry Booth was dean. He received his degree of LL.B. in 1868, but all the records affirm that he was admitted to the bar on August 20, 1867, and opened an office and began practice at that time. His partner was Christian C. Kohlsaat, who later became a judge of the United States Circuit Court. The two young men had been students together in the University, where they had contracted a warm friendship. They had corresponded during Smith's service in the army. They were of the same age, members of the same church, and a little later Kohlsaat married Smith's cousin. The friends formed a partnership under the firm name of Smith and Kohlsaat. They remained together five years.

Meantime, during the years of this first partnership, events of great interest and importance to Smith outside his business had occurred.

When in 1864 by a union of the Tabernacle Church and a number of members of the First Church the Second Baptist Church was formed

with my brother, Dr. Edgar J. Goodspeed, as pastor, both Smith and Kohlsaat had become members of the new organization. Both entered vigorously into the remarkable activities of what grew rapidly into a great and strong church. Both were highly valued helpers of the pastor. Both were members of the great Union Band Bible Class and active in the mission work which made that class notable. In this class and its social and mission activities and in the great chorus choir of the church Smith became associated with Miss Frances B. Morey. She was a cultivated and attractive young woman of an excellent family. Her father, Rev. Reuben B. Morey, was at that time pastor of the Baptist Church at Merton, Wisconsin. A brother, William Carey Morey, has been professor of history in his Alma Mater, the University of Rochester, for thirty-seven years, retiring, as this sketch is being written, at the age of seventy-seven. He is an author of distinction, a student of rare scholarly attainments, a most successful teacher, a man greatly loved and admired in every period and activity and relation of his long life.

His sister Frances was worthy of her brother. All who knew her felt her charm. Fred Smith found her very attractive. Their association in musical and mission work resulted in mutual affection. They were married by Miss Morey's father in Merton, Wisconsin, in July, 1871. The bridegroom was twenty-seven years old. It was a marriage of affection and continued to be a happy one. They had no children. Mrs. Smith was devoted to good works. She was a member of many clubs and organizations of charity. She was active in the Daughters of the American Revolution and the Fortnightly Club. She was president of the board of Managers of the Illinois Training School for Nurses and a member of the boards of the School of Domestic Arts and Sciences and the Chicago Home for the Friendless.

In 1872 Mr. and Mrs. Smith were my parishioners in the Second Baptist Church of Chicago. In the autumn of that year, the year after the great fire, they moved to the south division of the city and transferred their membership to the First Baptist Church. Smith and Kohlsaat married in the same year, 1871, Kohlsaat, as has been said, marrying Smith's cousin, so that the two young lawyers, both later to become judges, were related in manifold ways—by marriage, as partners, as members of the same church, as earnest advocates of the policies of the Republican party, and in all religious and political activities. I had renewed my early acquaintance with both of them during nine months of a student pastorate in Chicago in 1865. This acquaintance now ripened into a friendship that continued throughout the

lives of both these exceptional men. We recalled and lived over again our experiences in the old University.

From 1873 Mr. Smith conducted his law practice without a partner for twelve years. It was during this period that he began a kind of public service for which he developed exceptional gifts, in which he became highly useful and influential, and which in an increasing degree he continued to the end of his life, a period of forty years. This service was his trusteeship in educational institutions. It began in 1879 when he became a trustee of the Baptist Theological Union, located at Chicago. This corporation was struggling to maintain and endow the Baptist Union Theological Seminary. The institution was passing through a period of grave difficulty. Its future was uncertain. To be one of its trustees required a spirit of devotion and sacrifice and faith. Yet the foremost men in the denomination in Chicago were its trustees. Such men only were sought for its managing board. Mr. Smith was only thirty-five years old, but such was his weight of character even at that age, and such recognition had his abilities won, that he was elected a trustee of the institution. The position was an honor as well as a responsibility.

All that has been said of the Theological Seminary was equally true of the old University. The trustees of that institution followed the lead of the Seminary only two months later and appointed the same rising young lawyer a member of its board. He welcomed the latter appointment as a loyal alumnus who was devoted to his Alma Mater. The election to the trusteeship of the Theological Seminary he accepted as an obligation he owed to his denomination. With the University he remained six years. In 1885, recognizing the hopelessness of rescuing it from its overwhelming difficulties, he retired from the board and the following year saw the end of its educational work. With the Seminary he remained forty years, his connection with it ending only with his death. He was one of its most faithful and efficient trustees and had the satisfaction of seeing it gradually emerge from its difficulties, multiply its resources and attendance, and finally become the Divinity School of the present University of Chicago and one of the great theological schools of the world.

It was when Mr. Smith entered the Seminary board that he and I again became closely associated. I was a trustee and the financial agent and secretary of the board and I had every reason to become acquainted with his faithfulness to duty, his wisdom in counsel, his courage through long years of discouraging struggle, and his abounding liberality. I

was often compelled to call on him for contributions, and he never failed to respond with cheerful and, to me, cheering generosity.

In June, 1889, I left the service of the Theological Seminary to engage in the effort for the founding of the present University of Chicago. In the same spirit of devotion he always manifested, Mr. Smith assumed the duties of recording secretary of the Seminary board and performed them for nearly three years, until, the University having been founded and the Seminary united with it as its Divinity School, I resumed the duties of secretary of the Divinity Board and relieved him, he meantime having become a member of the Board of Trustees of the new University of Chicago.

This record of trusteeships has covered thirteen years. During that period Mr. Smith had continued to advance in his profession and in general reputation. In 1887 he had been president of the Law Club of Chicago. In 1890 he had received the high honor of election to the presidency of the Chicago Bar Association. As a good Republican active in politics he early became a member of the Hamilton Club and in 1891 and 1892 was its president. During this period also he had formed a partnership with S. P. Millard which continued for three years or more following 1885.

It was in 1890 that his most important partnership began. Together with Frank A. Helmer and Frank I. Moulton, both of whom were his juniors in age, he organized the well-known firm of Smith, Helmer, and Moulton, with offices for some years at 132 Clark Street. This partnership continued for above twelve years. In 1895, by the admission of Henry W. Price, the firm became Smith, Helmer, Moulton, and Price. The combination was a strong one and prospered. The election of Mr. Smith to the judgeship in 1903 led to his retirement from the firm, but Messrs. Helmer and Moulton are still associated after a partnership of thirty years.

Mr. Smith was not what is commonly known as a "jury lawyer." One who knew him well says of him:

> He did not seek open court work, except in chancery matters, but did not seem to shun it, and was always thoroughly prepared in entering upon a trial. And, in a way, he was strong with a jury, as his plain common sense way of presenting his side of a case, his evident frankness and sincerity, his straightforward analysis and deductions from the evidence, often proved more convincing and effective with a jury than a more rhetorical effort.

The evident high character of the advocate was eloquent and convincing.

One of his partners makes the following revealing statement:

> Judge Smith was imperturbable, patient, and courteous in his intercourse with men and attorneys and not easily disturbed under great provocation. I can recall but one instance in thirteen years of association with him in which he displayed anger or resentment. In that case he believed that the demands made upon his client were in the nature of blackmail, and he called the attorney for the claimant to his office and said to him in very plain language that he considered the demand blackmail, that if the threatened suit was filed, he, the attorney, would immediately be served with a warrant of arrest and prosecuted for blackmail; and then rising from his desk in anger he showed the attorney the door and told him never to show his face in the office again. It is needless to state that the demands were dropped and suit was not brought. He had eminently the judicial temperament. He found on the bench his real place.

In confirmation of this last statement Mr. Smith's unusual qualifications for the bench were early recognized by the Republicans of Chicago and in 1898 he was nominated for the position of judge of the Superior Court. It was, however, a Democratic year and he failed of election. In 1903 he was nominated for judge of the Circuit Court of Cook County. His election was recommended by a large majority in the Bar Association primary, a most flattering indication of the favorable opinion of the lawyers of the city. Once more it was a Democratic year, all but three of the candidates of that party being elected. Mr. Smith was one of the three successful Republicans.

An incident of the campaign illustrates the positive qualities and the independent character of the man. It was the period of the Lorimer régime and Judge Elbridge Hanecy was one of the nominees for the Circuit Court who was regarded as specially representing Lorimer. Feeling ran high and personal vituperation was freely indulged in by newspapers and candidates. In one of his speeches Hanecy lambasted the independent newspaper which was opposing him, and particularly its editor. The meeting was composed of his warm adherents, who gave him enthusiastic applause. Another candidate followed indicating his agreement with and approval of Hanecy. But this did not move Smith, who said, "I am not here to attack the newspapers. To indulge in such criticism is far from my purpose." He then went on to impress on the audience the importance of the business of electing competent judges. His immediate hearers shouted for Hanecy, but on election day the people voted for Smith and relegated Judge Hanecy to private life.

That Judge Smith had exceptional qualifications for the bench was soon made evident. In December, 1904, eighteen months after his election, the Supreme Court of the state conferred on him the honor of

an assignment to the Appellate Court of the Chicago district. In 1906 he was reassigned to that position and was later made Presiding Justice of the Court.

At the end of his first term in 1909 Judge Smith was re-elected, and again in 1915 was elected for a third six-year term. It is significant of the excellence of his record as a judge and the growing approval of the community that in his third election he received a much larger vote than ever before, his majority approaching fifty thousand. He continued his public service as a judge of the Circuit Court for sixteen years, the closing years of his life.

In looking up cases brought before our judges, the ordinary citizen is astonished to find how many trivial cases are carried up by appeal to the Supreme Court of the state. He may be pardoned for some disgust when he remembers that he is being taxed to permit litigants to carry to the highest judicial tribunal of the state insignificant quarrels that ought never to be permitted to go beyond the jurisdiction of a justice of the peace. Another thing that astonishes the ordinary citizen is the fact that in half the cases, perhaps more than half the cases, carried by appeal to the state Supreme Court, the decrees of the lower courts are reversed or the cases remanded for a new trial. No stronger argument than this can be urged for choosing competent judges. Highly intelligent men, indeed, often differ in their opinions, and the most intelligent and conscientious judges have their decisions reversed. But this has become so common in our courts as to be almost a scandal.

Judge Smith was more fortunate in having his decrees approved by the Supreme Court than many of his fellow-judges. In one of his campaigns, perhaps in both of those which resulted in his re-election, this fact was advanced in the press in his favor.

One of the interesting and important cases in which the decree of Judge Smith was sustained by the Supreme Court decided the question of the right of holders of real estate along the lake shore to accretions to their property thrown up by the waves. In 1909 the legislature passed a resolution reciting that the rights of the state to land along the shore of Lake Michigan had been usurped by private individuals and an investigating commission was appointed. The commission reported and the attorney-general was instructed to pursue the investigation and institute proceedings to regain possession for the state of shore lands rightly belonging to it. A test case was brought as to a tract of ground in Evanston where an acre or more of new land had been added to a lot on the lake shore by the construction of breakwaters and piers by other

parties than the owner of the lot. The decisions of the Circuit and Supreme courts agreed in determining the following points:

The line at which the water usually stands when free from disturbing causes is the boundary of land in a conveyance calling for the lake as a line.

The shore owner has the undisputed right of access from his land to the lake. This right cannot be taken from him without just compensation.

The whole doctrine of accretions rests upon the right of access to the water, and it must be convenient access. The right to preserve his contact with the water is one of the most valuable of a riparian owner.

Such owner cannot himself bring about accretions by artificial means and thus add to his lawful holdings; but the courts decreed that "the owner of land bordering on Lake Michigan has title to land formed adjacent to his property by accretions, even though the formation of such accretions is brought about, in part, by artificial conditions created by third parties." In the case in question it had been brought about by third parties and the state failed to gain possession of the accretions thus formed.

Another case establishing an important principle was the following: The wife of a drunkard had secured a judgment against a saloonkeeper for selling intoxicating liquor to her husband and thus injuring her means of support. Finding the judgment could not be collected from the saloonkeeper, she sued the owner of the building in which the saloon was located, to subject the premises owned by him to the payment of the judgment. Judge Smith gave a decision and entered a decree in her favor. The case was carried to the Supreme Court and the decree of Judge Smith was affirmed, that court deciding that the judgment recovered against the owner of the building was "a personal judgment, for the payment of which all of his property is subject."

The abilities and character of Judge Smith were so highly appreciated by the judges of the Supreme Court that they kept him, during a large part of his judicial service, "in the first branch of the Appellate Court of Illinois for the First District." During the closing period of his life he was the Chief Justice of the Circuit Court of Cook County. After his death his fellow-judges of that Court united in the following estimate of him.

Judge Smith's outstanding characteristics were his courteous, gentlemanly nature, his patience in hearing, his firmness and fearlessness in decision, his unswerving integrity, his dignified bearing on the bench, his urbanity with his associates and friends. He was a tower of strength in times of stress. He held the scales of justice with even poise. He was a light to the bar and an example to his judicial associates worthy of emulation. He was well grounded in the theory of law, and always abreast of the

decisions of the day. He was a learned and scholarly man and his opinions in the Appellate Court are monuments to his learning and legal erudition.

Judge Smith was a lovable, kindly character with a keen sense of justice and right. No maudlin sentimentality or sinister influence affected his judgments; they reflected the law of the land impartially administered. Friend and foe alike received justice at his hands, measured and circumscribed only by the law. His reputation as a safe, reliable, and sound judge was universally conceded by bench and bar alike.

Judge Charles M. Thomson, who succeeded Judge Smith as Chief Justice of the Circuit Court, said of him: "He was one of the ablest judges who ever sat on the bench of our county. His fine temperament and genial disposition were never absent and made it a pleasure either to be associated with him or to appear before him as an advocate." The following statement by a successful lawyer will be recognized by those who knew him as a true characterization of the man: "As a judge he became noted among the trial lawyers for his thorough independence and promptness in rulings according to his convictions of the law, regardless of individuals or interests before him."

The founding of the new and greater University of Chicago brought me into a new intimacy with Judge Smith. He was grieved and humiliated over the destruction of the old University. He lamented it as an alumnus, as a Baptist, as a citizen, as a friend of learning. No one rejoiced more sincerely when it began to appear that a new University of Chicago might be founded on a broader foundation and with larger promise. It gave him particular satisfaction that the alumni of the first University were to be recognized as alumni of the new one. He was among the early subscribers to the first million-dollar fund raised in 1889–90. Such was his interest, ability, and standing that as a matter of course he was selected as a member of the first Board of Trustees. I was secretary of the Board and of its committees and he became vice-president of the Board and chairman of the standing Committee on Instruction and Equipment, positions of importance and influence which he occupied continuously to the end of his life. Through his committee, appointments of all members of the Faculties were recommended to the Trustees. As chairman of the committee he worked efficiently, first with President Harper and then with President Judson, for nearly thirty years, from 1890 to 1919. He was not a man of large means, but was a frequent and liberal contributor to the funds.

Faithful in attendance at the frequent meetings of the Board and the various committees of which he was a member (the Board itself meeting regularly once a month), as well as in the performance of every service required of him, deeply interested in all the new questions con-

stantly arising, strong in his own convictions and frank in their expression, and at the same time considerate of the opinions of others, and supporting loyally every policy finally agreed upon; conservative in all matters relating to the great trust committed to him and his fellow-trustees, contributing freely the large resources of his special knowledge and experience, fitted by his training and sympathies to consider intelligently the educational plans and policies of the presidents, accustomed to do his own thinking but at the same time having a mind singularly hospitable to new views; devoted with never-waning zeal to the interests of the University, an excellent presiding officer, contributing the full weight of his large influence to the unity and harmony which has always characterized the University Board, it may be truthfully said that Judge Smith was an ideal trustee in one of the most remarkable educational origins and developments of any age or any land. He had the satisfaction of seeing the University he helped to found accumulate assets aggregating above $46,000,000, and enrol more than 10,000 students a year, taking its place in the twenty-nine years of his trusteeship among the leading universities of the world.

Judge Smith's relation to the University made him a trustee in two other institutions. When Rush Medical College and the Chicago Manual Training School became a part of the University system, he was elected to the boards of both schools and served them continuously from 1897–98 for more than twenty years, as they gradually developed into the University's larger work in the Medical School and the School of Education.

Other positions of trust and honor came to him. In 1893 he was vice-president of the Chicago Law Institute and in 1913 was elected its president. He was vice-president of the Union League Club. He became an annual governing member of the Chicago Historical Society, in the affairs of which he took a deep interest. Among his clubs were the Marquette and the Chicago Literary Club.

The mother of Judge Smith lived to see the old farmhouse replaced by a fine brick mansion with wide verandas, which still stands embowered in trees on the "Ridge." She died in 1893, three years after the son she sent to the old University as a preparatory student in 1860 had become a trustee of the new University of Chicago. The father lived to the advanced age of eighty-eight, dying in 1904, a year after his son's first election as judge.

The crowning affliction of Judge Smith's life was the death of his wife in 1910. As he had no children he was left quite alone for the last

nine years of his life, except for the brother and two sisters who survived him, and the friends he had made. The year before Mrs. Smith's death he had been re-elected judge of the Circuit Court.

Sometime after the death of his father, acting for himself and the other heirs, he sold the old farm, and it became the home of the Ridgemoor Country Club. The Smith mansion, as has been said, still stands, and south of it farther along the "Ridge" a very attractive clubhouse has been built and the fine natural advantages of the location have been happily adapted to the purposes of a golf club. Judge Smith was himself a lover of golf and during the closing decade of his life was accustomed to spend a month or more each winter with some congenial friend on the shores of the Gulf in Mississippi, at Summerville, South Carolina, Birmingham, Alabama, and other golfing resorts of the South.

The malady which ended his life was a slow and distressing one developing into cancer and probably was, from the first, incurable. When death finally came, he welcomed it as a relief from suffering. He died July 31, 1919, in the seventy-sixth year of his age. He did not leave a large estate, but testified that his interest in the University, of which he had been a trustee for twenty-nine years, was real and profound by making the following provisions in his will:

> My set of the Illinois Supreme Court Reports and my partial set of the Illinois Appellate Court Reports to be placed in and become a part of the Law Library of the University of Chicago.
>
> I give to the said University of Chicago the sum of $25,000 to be used by the Trustees of said University as a scholarship endowment fund and administered by the said Trustees in their discretion for the welfare of said University and the assistance of needy and deserving students of said University in obtaining an education.

The terms of the scholarship bequest, leaving large discretion to the Trustees in administering the bequest for the "welfare of the University," were evidently dictated by his long experience as a member of the governing board. The books were early placed in the Law Library and a year after his death the scholarship fund was paid into the University treasury.

In the memorial which the Trustees of the University entered on their records immediately after the death of Judge Smith they paid him this well-deserved tribute:

> Our sense of bereavement relates not only to the kindly, courteous, and patient qualities that marked him in the long period of service on the Board, but perhaps more so to the conspicuous gifts of wisdom, prudence, conservatism, fidelity, and vision that he brought to the consideration of the University's affairs and problems.

His funeral was attended and in part conducted by the George H. Thomas Post of the Grand Army of the Republic, of which he was a member.

The judges of the Circuit Court, whose estimate of him as a jurist has been already given, also said of him:

> A kindly Christian gentleman has gone from our midst. We revere his memory and mourn his passing away. He will be greatly missed by his associates for his sage counsel, his inspiring presence, and manly virtues. We thank God for the gift of his noble and exemplary life.

An attorney was once asked: "What manner of man is Judge Smith?" His answer was extraordinarily apt: "A physical portrayal of substantial justice." Of medium height, heavily built, his head big and bald, his face clean shaven except for a heavy mustache, broad of chin and firm of mouth, his appearance without the slightest air of pretention was dignified and impressive and his title fitted him perfectly. He was every inch a judge.

If I should attempt a further estimate of Judge Smith I should only repeat what has already been said on some page of this sketch. He rendered an important service to the great city by his sixteen years on the bench as a just and able judge. He once said: "It is my ambition to be a good judge rather than a great one." And as one of the best of judges, he was exceptionally useful to the community he served.

But he rendered a vastly wider service than to the community of the great city, a service that carried his influence far abroad and will perpetuate it through many generations to come. By his influential relation to the University of Chicago he ably assisted in the beginnings and the development of a movement that we may well believe will continue with increasing power to bless, not a single community, but the world as long as civilization endures. He aided efficiently in founding and shaping the policies of an institution that will train the minds and mold the lives of succeeding generations of students who will extend its influence to the ends of the earth. Such long-continuing and wide-extending influence, growing in power as it continues and expands, attaches inevitably to those who become by their services or their gifts a part of the life of a great institution of education. This is doubly true of those who, like Judge Smith, by both services and gifts become a part of that expanding life. On the foundation stones of the University of Chicago the letters of his name are cut deep.

UNIVERSITY COMMISSIONS

To replace the University Congregation, which was established at the annual meeting of the Board of Trustees in June, 1896, and which has long ceased to function, the Board of Trustees has established fourteen University Commissions. The Congregation was a large body comprising all officers of administration and instructors above the rank of Associate, all Doctors of Philosophy of the University, officers in affiliated colleges when elected by the Congregation, and representatives of the Doctors and Bachelors of Law, Bachelors of Divinity, Masters and Bachelors of Arts, Literature, and Science. This large body was to consider subjects referred to it and to make recommendations to governing bodies. It had the power to interpose a temporary veto of an action of the Faculty. The Quarterly Congregation Dinner through lack of interest became an annual dinner. Even this was not well attended. Soon the Congregation ceased to function.

The Congregation, however, had one responsibility that as Dr. Goodspeed has pointed out in his *History* may become vitally important to the welfare of the University.

> As long as things go well the Congregation may be said to have no functions. . . . . But if the time ever comes when things go wrong, when the "governing bodies" fail to guide the policies of the institution wisely, the Congregation can make its voice heard. True, it can only recommend. But it will represent such a constituency that its well-considered recommendations urged and perhaps insisted on, with the University and fifty or a hundred thousand alumni behind them, would reach a governing body with something very like authority. This, it is true, is a far cry; perhaps a very remote possibility. It is, however, the one thing that may make the institution of the Congregation an important event in the history of the University.

On recommendation of the President of the University the president of the Board of Trustees at a meeting October 14, 1919, appointed a committee to consider the advisability of creating a body to take the place of the University Congregation. This committee comprised Harold H. Swift, chairman, T. E. Donnelley, and C. W. Gilkey. This committee reported at the June meeting, 1920, and at the meeting July 13, the Board adopted a plan for University Commissions. Feeling that one of the primary needs of the University is a more active participation in its affairs by the alumni and the development among them of a keener sense of responsibility for its well-being, believ-

ing also that with the rapid growth of the University points of contact between the Trustees and the members of the Faculties need to be multiplied in order that each may better understand the point of view and purposes of the other, confident, moreover, that the future prosperity of the University must depend to no small degree upon its success in enlisting the intelligent interest of leading citizens of Chicago and the Central West who do not happen to be among its alumni and Trustees, the Committee briefly formulated the objects of the Commissions as follows: to promote the interest of the University of Chicago by (1) fostering a closer relationship between the alumni and the University; (2) developing a closer relationship between the Faculties and Board of Trustees; (3) developing more actively the interest of representative Chicagoans in the University.

The duty of each Commission is to study the work of its school or group and from time to time to make suggestions to the Board of Trustees as to the manner and means of improving the work of the school or group. These suggestions are to be sent to the Board of Trustees through the President of the University who shall transmit them to the Board with his recommendations.

There will be fourteen University Commissions, one for each of the centers of interest in the University life: The Law School, The Medical School, The Graduate Medical School, The Divinity School, The School of Education, The School of Commerce and Administration, The Colleges of Arts, Literature, and Science, Women's Interests, Historical Group (Political Economy, Political Science, History, Sociology and Anthropology), Modern Language Group, Classical Language Group, Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics, Geology and Geography, Biological Group (Zoölogy, Anatomy, Physiology, Botany, Pathology, Hygiene and Bacteriology). Of each of these Commissions the President of the University is ex officio member. On each Commission there will be two alumni, one of whom is to be elected by the Alumni Council, the other to be appointed by the president of the Board of Trustees on recommendation of the President of the University; two or more residents of Chicago or vicinity not connected in an official capacity with the University who will be appointed by the president of the Board of Trustees upon recommendation by the President of the University; two members of the Faculty who, whenever practicable, will be heads of departments or Deans closely associated with given departments and will be appointed by the Board of Trustees on recommendation by the President of the University; one member of the Board

of Trustees and an alternate member to be appointed by the president of the Board of Trustees. It is to be noted that when one Commission is appointed for two departments one Faculty member of the Commission shall be appointed from each department. If the group is composed of more than two departments then one member shall be added from the Faculty to represent each additional department. The term of office is to be two years. One-half of the membership immediately to be appointed will be named for one year.

Each Commission is to meet at least once each quarter excepting during the Summer Quarter, and at least one meeting each year is to be with the teaching force of all departments of groups represented. There is to be at least one joint meeting of all the Commissions and the Board of Trustees of the University during the Spring Quarter of each year. Special meetings may be called in accordance with such regulations as may be provided by the Commissions or upon the call of the chairman of the Commissions. At these meetings the work of the group is to be considered from all points of view represented. Suggestions for improvements may be made at any time by the Commission to the Board of Trustees through the President of the University.

A further effort of the members of the Board of Trustees to come into closer contact with the members of the Faculties appears in a new by-law of the Board of Trustees establishing an annual dinner in honor of members of the Faculties. The first of these will be held October 4, 1920, taking the place of the usual Faculty dinner.

The establishment of the University Commissions affords an interesting device for constructive criticism of the several parts of the University organism. It is to be hoped that the Commissions will perform a real service in improving the University of Chicago.

EVENTS: PAST AND FUTURE

THE ONE HUNDRED AND SEVENTEENTH CONVOCATION

The One Hundred and Seventeenth Convocation was held in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, Friday, September 3, at 4:00 P.M. The Convocation Address, "The New Past," was delivered by James Henry Breasted, Ph.D., Professor of Egyptology and Oriental History, Director of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago.

The award of honors was announced: Mary Ann Benson, the Lillian Gertrude Selz Scholarship. The election of the following students to the Beta of Illinois Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa was announced: Erik Anderson, Carroll York Belknap, Guy Thomas Buswell, Elsie Deane Canan, Hazel May Cornell, Florence Marguerite Edler, Emmeline Fricke, Faith Gamble, Harald Groth Oxholm Holck, Herman Theodore Mossberg, Marjorie Lora Royce (June, 1919), Luther Martin Sandwick, William Dudley Woodhead.

Honorable mention for excellence in the work of the Junior Colleges: Ruland Wetherby Barber, Samuel Sol Caplan, Dorothy Jane Church, Harry Clayton Fisher, Justus Miles Hull, Mary Louise Hutchinson, Julius Hyman, Harry Perl Klier, Beatrice Marks, Ruth Anna Charlotte Miller, Mattie J. McCoy, Selma Agatha Reidt, Richard Biddle Richter, William Shapiro, Barrett LeRoy Spach, Raymond Hillman Starr, Robert Thorne, William Hall Trout, Harry Winkler, Ethel Foster Wyley. Honorable mention for excellence in the work leading to the Certificate of the College of Education: Olga Jane Davies, Helen Laurie. The Bachelor's degree was conferred with honors on the following students: Carroll York Belknap, Sarah Gibson Brinkley, Howard Clark Brown, M. Ethel Brown, Elsie Deane Canan, Esther Perez Carvajal, Hazel May Cornell, Florence Marguerite Edler, Harriett Huldah Fillinger, Faith Gamble, Nellie Emma Jones, Corinne Laney, Olga Law, Robert Wallace Mackie, Lydia Duncan Montgomery, Viola Ellison Moore, Herman Theodore Mossberg, Jean Montgomery Pickett, Grace Margaret Poorbaugh, Mary Louisa Robinson, Marjorie Lora Royce, Luther Martin Sandwick, Anna Catherine Shine, Metha Louise Wulf. Honors for excellence in particular departments of the Senior Colleges were awarded to the following students: Carroll York Belknap, *English;* Gertrude Stanton Bennett, *Latin;* Howard Clark Brown, *English;* Howard Clark Brown, *Botany;* M. Ethel Brown, *Education;* Esther Perez Carvajal, *Romance;* Esther Perez Carvajal, *General Literature;* Hazel May Cornell, *Geography and Geology;* Arthur Benson Cummins, *Chemistry;* Florence Marguerite Edler, *History;* Florence Marguerite Edler, *Romance;* Ethel Feldkirchner, *Home Economics;* Harriett Huldah Fillinger, *Chemistry;* Faith Gamble, *Botany;* Corinne Laney, *Latin;* Leola Lillian Lasell, *English;* Olga Law, *Political Economy;* Robert Wallace Mackie, *Political Economy;* Lydia Duncan Montgomery, *Education;* Viola Ellison Moore, *Botany;* Herman Theodore Mossberg, *Political Economy;* Elizabeth Catherine Oettershagen, *German;* Grace Margaret Poorbaugh, *Education;* Grace Margaret Poorbaugh, *Art Education;* Mary Louisa Robinson, *Botany;* Marjorie Lora Royce, *French;* Metha Louise Wulf, *Geography.*

Degrees and titles were conferred as follows: *The Colleges:* the certificate of the College of Education, 9; the degree of Bachelor of Arts, 4; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy, 71; the degree of Bachelor of Science, 39; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy in Education, 38; the degree of Bachelor of Philosophy in Commerce and Administration, 11; *The Divinity School:* the degree of Master of Arts, 15; the degree of Bachelor of Divinity, 3; the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 1; *The Law School:* the degree of Bachelor of Laws, 4; the degree of Doctor of Law, 10; *The Graduate Schools of Arts, Literature, and Science:* the degree of Master of Arts, 63; the degree of Master of Science, 28; the degree of Doctor of

Philosophy, 31. The total number of degrees conferred was 327.

The Convocation Prayer Service was held at 10:30 A.M., Sunday, August 29, in Harper Assembly Room. At 11:00 A.M., in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, the Convocation Religious Service was held. The preacher was the Reverend William Coleman Bitting, D.D., Second Baptist Church, St. Louis, Missouri.

GENERAL ITEMS

On July 30 Percy MacKaye, dramatist, author of *The Canterbury Pilgrims*, *Caliban*, and many other masques, gave an author's reading in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall at the University of Chicago. On August 2 he lectured on "Community Drama," on which he is the leading American authority; and August 3 he gave an author's reading from his drama *George Washington*.

Two of the best-known literary women of the country lectured at the University of Chicago in July and August. On July 26 Miss Harriet Monroe, editor of *Poetry*, spoke on "Recent Poetry in English, I: The Conservatives," and July 27 on "Recent Poetry in English, II: The Radicals." Miss Monroe is co-editor of *The New Poetry*, an anthology, and author of *You and I* and *The Passing Show*, the latter a volume of plays in verse.

Miss Amy Lowell gave an author's reading on August 13, and on the evening of August 17 gave in Leon Mandel Assembly Hall a lecture on "Walt Whitman and the New Poetry."

Announcement is made by the University of Chicago Trustees that David Allan Robertson, Associate Professor of English and Secretary to the President, has been appointed to a new office in the University, that of Dean of the Colleges of Arts, Literature, and Science.

For six months Dr. Scott E. W. Bedford, Associate Professor of Sociology in the University of Chicago and secretary of the American Sociological Society, has been with the War Department, assisting in starting the educational work among the soldiers. He has assisted in writing the textbooks used in the basic course in citizenship and was sent to Camp Lee, Virginia, to give an exhibition of this course before a Committee of Congress. He also made a presentation of the work in general education before a dinner of over a hundred Senators and Representatives at the Army and Navy Club in Washington.

Professor Bedford has been sent by the War Department to study the work in training for citizenship offered by the larger unofficial organizations in the United States and to make suggestions on Americanization and citizenship training to all the departments and most of the bureaus of the federal government. He has also been sent to several of the largest cities to explain the army education to recruiting officers, chambers of commerce, and civic organizations. Dr. Bedford's position has been that of development expert in general education.

The army educational work is now regarded as the most important in adult education in modern times. It is directed by some fifty experts gathered at Camp Grant, Illinois, in the Service School. The teachers who are to teach in the army next year were brought together at Camp Grant this summer for instruction in their tasks. It is expected that next year the United States Army Schools will have at least 200,000 students in them.

An alumnus of the University of Chicago, Dr. Wallace Walter Atwood, S.B. '97, Ph.D. '03, professor of physiography in Harvard University and president-elect of Clark University to succeed Dr. G. Stanley Hall, is the author of a recent volume issued under the title of *New Geography*. It contains colored maps and is fully illustrated, and will form a part of a new geographical series.

Dr. Atwood, who was connected with the University of Chicago for fourteen years, is a member of the United States and Illinois Geological Surveys and of the National Research Council, and the author of *Glaciation of the Uinta and Wasatch Mountains*, and of *Geology and Mineral Resources of the Alaska Peninsula*.

The Alumni Council of the University of Chicago has been particularly active and successful the past year. The number of alumni clubs throughout the country has increased under the wise policy of the Council from five to thirty-one. A large beginning has been made

toward the subscription of an adequate fund to carry on alumni activities on an independent basis. Announcement was made at the recent Convocation that a total of $88,841 had already been subscribed to the fund by 654 alumni. The contributions on hand have been increased by favorable purchase of Liberty Bonds. It is expected that by the time the fund is a year old, by next January, it will have reached $100,000 in subscriptions, and about $50,000 in funds on hand.

An alumnus of the University of Chicago, Dr. John H. Reynolds, who took his Master's degree from the University in 1897 and is now president of Hendrix College, Arkansas, has been selected as director-general of the $25,000,000 educational campaign of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South. This is regarded as the greatest educational movement ever attempted in that part of the country. Dr. Reynolds will have a year's leave of absence to conduct the campaign, his headquarters being at Nashville, Tennessee.

Among the recent publications issued by the University of Chicago Press is one on *Teaching in the Army*, by James C. Lewis, Jr., Major of Field Artillery, who is now Assistant Professor of Military Science and Tactics in the University of Chicago. Major Lewis, who received the Master's degree and the School Superintendent's certificate from Columbia University, has emphasized the principles of teaching that are accepted by practically all educators, and the book is the result of a broad contact with army instruction. In his introduction Director Charles H. Judd, of the University of Chicago School of Education, says: "The book is a most encouraging symptom of the movement to improve teaching technique in the army. It ought to get a very wide use."

In his monograph on *The Genitive of Value in Latin and Other Constructions with Verbs of Rating*, Professor Gordon J. Laing, chairman of the Department of Latin at the University of Chicago, says that his purpose is twofold: (1) to determine the origin of the genitive of value, and (2) to ascertain the limits of the different combinations: what genitives and ablatives are used in expressions of valuation and with what verbs they are combined; and to what extent genitives, ablatives, and verbs vary in different authors and different spheres. He has also endeavored to show the historical development of the individual expressions and of the construction as a whole. Some of the sections of the monograph have been reprinted by permission from Professor Laing's article in *Studies in Honor of Basil L. Gildersleeve* (Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore).

A new scientific publication from the University of Chicago Press is *The Flora of the Eagle Creek Formation*, by Dr. Ralph W. Chaney, of the State University of Iowa. The author had made considerable collections of fossil plant material in the Gorge of the Columbia River, in Oregon and Washington, and from these he has drawn conclusions regarding the age of the formation, the general character of the flora, and the physical conditions during the epoch.

Professor James Henry Breasted, Ph.D., LL.D., Chairman of the Department of Oriental Languages and Literatures and Director of the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, was the Convocation Orator at the One Hundred and Seventeenth Convocation of the University, Friday, September 3.

Professor Breasted, who has just returned after a year's work as Director of the Oriental Institute in conducting an archaeological survey of the Near East, has been highly successful in finding extraordinary opportunities for enriching Haskell Oriental Museum from objects in Egypt and Mesopotamia.

In 1900 Professor Breasted was appointed by the Royal Academies of Germany to copy and arrange the Egyptian inscriptions in European museums for an Egyptian dictionary; in 1905–7 he was Director of the Egyptian Expedition of the University of Chicago; he has been the Morse lecturer at Union Theological Seminary, New York, the Earl lecturer at the University of California, and the Hale Foundation lecturer before the American Academy of Science at Washington. He is associate editor of the *American Journal of Semitic Languages and Literatures*, corresponding member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Berlin, and has been president of the American Oriental Society.

Among his numerous publications are *Ancient Records of Egypt*, in five volumes;

A History of Egypt, which has gone into German, Russian, French, and English editions; *Development of Religion and Thought in Ancient Egypt;* and *Ancient Times: A History of the Early World.*

Before leaving the Near East, Director Breasted gave the commencement address at the Syrian Protestant College at Beirut.

Announcement is just made by the University of Chicago Trustees that Director Charles Hubbard Judd of the School of Education, who is also Head of the Department of Education in the University, has been made Chairman of the Department of Psychology to succeed Professor James R. Angell, who resigned to accept the presidency of the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

Director Judd, who formerly was professor and director of the psychological laboratory at Yale University, has been president of the American Psychological Association and editor of the monograph supplements of the *Psychological Review.* He has written a general introduction to psychology, as well as a recent volume on *The Psychology of High-School Subjects.*

Dean Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago Divinity School, has recently become a contributing editor to the New York *Independent*, giving especial attention to the religious phases of social questions. Dean Mathews, who is now the editor of the *Biblical World*, published by the University of Chicago Press, was formerly editor of *The World Today.* He is also director of religious work at the Chautauqua Institution, and for four years was president of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America.

Professor Mathews is the author of many books, including *The Church and the Changing Order*, *The Gospel and the Modern Man*, and *The Spiritual Interpretation of History.*

New impressions of successful books printed in July include those of *Materials for the Study of Elementary Economics*, edited by L. C. Marshall, Chester W. Wright, and James A. Field; *Second-Year Mathematics for Secondary Schools*, by Ernst R. Breslich; *The Evolution of Early Christianity*, by Shirley J. Case; *Literature in the Elementary School*, by Porter Lander MacClintock, and *American Poems*, by Walter C. Bronson.

For August new impressions of the following books were announced: *The Place of Industries in Elementary Education*, by Katharine E. Dopp; *Heroes of Israel*, by Theodore G. Soares; *The Revelation of John*, by Shirley J. Case; *Current Economic Problems*, by Walton H. Hamilton; *Readings in Industrial Society*, by Leon C. Marshall; and *General Sociology*, by Albion Woodbury Small.

Professor Charles J. Chamberlain, of the Department of Botany at the University of Chicago, sailed August 12 on "The Imperator" to be a guest of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, which met this year at Cardiff. Dr. Chamberlain was invited to give the annual semipopular lecture before the botany section of the Association, an honor extended only to prominent botanists. His subject was "Cycads," plants with which he has been working for sixteen years and on which he wrote a volume for the "University of Chicago Science Series."

Dr. Chamberlain sailed for home on "The Aquitania" September 11 and resumed his regular work at the University with the opening of the Autumn Quarter.

The University Preachers for the Autumn Quarter, 1920, at the University of Chicago, are as follows:

For the month of October the first University Preacher is President Frank Wakeley Gunsaulus, of the Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago, who speaks on October 3. On October 10 Dr. Robert E. Speer, of New York City, will speak. Professor Francis Greenwood Peabody, of the Harvard Divinity School, will be the speaker on October 17. October 24 will be Settlement Sunday. The last preacher for October will be Bishop Francis J. McConnell, of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Bishop McConnell will also be the first preacher in November. Bishop Thomas F. Gailor, of Sewanee, Tennessee, will preach on November 28.

For December the University Preachers are Professor Albert Parker Fitch, of Amherst College, and Rev. James Gordon Gilkey, of the South Congregational Church, Springfield, Massachusetts.

Professor Leonard Eugene Dickson, of the Department of Mathematics at the University of Chicago, who recently received the high honor of election as corresponding member of the French

Academy of Sciences, has visited Europe as the official representative of the National Academy of Sciences at the London Conference on International Scientific Literature, meetings of which began September 28, at the offices of the Royal Society of London.

Professor Dickson also went as a delegate of the American Section of the International Mathematical Union, of which he is chairman, to the meetings of the Union at Strasbourg on September 20 and 21. At the International Mathematical Congress at Strasbourg, September 22–26, he gave by special invitation of the directors of the congress one of the four general addresses, as well as a more technical scientific paper.

Before sailing Dr. Dickson met in New York representatives of several scientific institutions to discuss recommendations to the Royal Society of London in regard to its future policies concerning the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature.

The officers of the University Orchestral Association announce the following program for the coming season at the University of Chicago:

Eight concerts by the Chicago Symphony Orchestra on October 19, November 9 and 23, January 11, February 1 and 15, March 8, and April 19.

Two recitals will be given during the season, one by Fannie Bloomfield-Zeisler on December 14, and one by Mabel Garrison on April 12.

The new president of the Orchestral Association is Professor Chester W. Wright, of the Department of Political Economy; the vice-president is Mrs. Harry Pratt Judson; and the secretary-treasurer, David Allan Robertson.

The Summer Quarter as a regular part of the University work was initiated by the University of Chicago in 1893. Summer schools have existed elsewhere for many years. At Chicago the Summer Quarter is not a summer school; the same quality of work is required and the same credit given as in the other quarters of the school year.

The attendance this year surpassed the remarkable record of 1916 which was due to special circumstances. The attendance this year was due to no unusual circumstances. Of the 5,406 students enrolled, 2,080 were graduate students and 2,150 were in the professional schools of Divinity, Law, Medicine, Education, and Commerce and Administration.

The meeting of the American Chemical Society, which was held in Chicago, September 6–10, brought together thousands of chemists from all parts of the country. Many of those in attendance spent Wednesday and Thursday on the quadrangles of the University where all the divisional meetings of the society were held.

The Divinity School of the University of Chicago announces that the Institute for Church Workers will open October 10 and that courses will be given by Professors J. M. Artman, E. D. Burton, G. B. Smith, and other members of the Faculty.

The Institute was initiated by the Divinity School last winter and proved highly successful, nearly three hundred church workers being enrolled.

Continued demand for *An Introduction to the Peace Treaties*, by Arthur Pearson Scott, makes a new impression of this notable book necessary. The author, who is Assistant Professor of History in the University of Chicago, has made a valuable contribution to the literature dealing with the aims of the war, the framing of the Treaty of Versailles, and the reasons which guided the Peace Conference in its decisions.

Some press comments on the book are as follows: "The simplest, clearest, and most intelligent book on the Peace Conference published so far"; "It is clear, concise and impartial"; "The book is one to be read right now"; "A book of value at this time of political discussion."

A new and enlarged edition of *Christian Faith for Men of Today*, by E. Albert Cook, is in press. This popular book which presents the modern constructive point of view in religion is adapted to use as a textbook or as a handbook for the general reader.

Official announcement has been made by the Board of Trustees of the University of Chicago of the adoption of a plan proposed by the Trustees of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy whereby the University shall take over the functions of the School and establish a

graduate professional curriculum for students in civics and philanthropy, to be known as the School of Social Service Administration. The maintenance of the plan is guaranteed by a fund of $25,000 a year for a period of five years from October 1, 1920.

Among the guarantors of the fund are Mrs. Emmons Blaine, Mr. Charles R. Crane, Mr. Morton D. Hull, Mr. Edward L. Ryerson, Mr. Julius Rosenwald, Mr. Harold H. Swift, Mrs. Arthur Aldis, the American Red Cross, the Jewish Charities, and the United Charities.

The Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy was founded eighteen years ago by Professor Graham Taylor, and among those who assisted in its early work was the late Professor Charles R. Henderson, of the University of Chicago. Among its later faculty have been Dr. Sophonisba P. Breckinridge, Assistant Professor of Social Economy, and Dr. Edith Abbott, Lecturer in Sociology, at the University of Chicago, who have had charge of the special work in social investigation. Nearly 3,000 men and women have been trained in the school, and it has furnished many investigators for expert service. For the last five years the school has been located in the former residence of Mr. Charles R. Crane on Michigan Avenue.

The Dean of the new school is Dean Leon C. Marshall, of the School of Commerce and Administration of the University of Chicago.

The King of Italy has recently conferred upon Professor Ernest Hatch Wilkins, of the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures at the University of Chicago, the title and insignia of Chevalier of the Order of the Crown of Italy.

Professor Wilkins has long been active in the development of the study of Italian in this country, and has published a number of books and articles dealing with Italian literature. For some time during the war he had general direction of the recruiting of men for Y.M.C.A. service with the Italian army.

Dr. Wilkins, who recently received the honorary degree of Doctor of Letters from Amherst College, has been vice-president of the Modern Language Association of America and of the Dante League of America, and is the editor of the new "University of Chicago Italian Series" now being published by the University of Chicago Press.

Professor Ernest DeWitt Burton, Head of the Department of New Testament and Early Christian Literature at the University of Chicago and Director of the University Libraries, was given the honorary degree of Doctor of Divinity by Harvard University at its recent commencement. Dr. Burton, who is widely known as a biblical scholar, has written many books, among them being *A Handbook of the Life of Paul*, *Spirit, Soul, and Flesh in Greek Writings from the Earliest Period to 180 A.D.*, and *A Harmony of the Synoptic Gospels in Greek* (with Edgar J. Goodspeed).

Professor Burton, who was recently appointed Chairman of the Commission on Christian Education in China, is already familiar with educational conditions in that country, having been a member of the Oriental Educational Investigation Commission sent out by the University of Chicago in 1908.

The total number of degrees conferred to date by the University of Chicago is 13,721. Exclusive of names repeated, the total number of men receiving degrees is 6,867, and of women 5,452, a grand total of 12,319 graduates. The degree of Doctor of Philosophy has been conferred on 1,225, almost exactly 10 per cent of the total alumni.

The University of Chicago Press has just issued a remarkable list of new fall books, which include the following: *The Financial Organization of Society*, by Harold G. Moulton; *Principles of Accounting*, by A. C. Hodge and J. O. McKinsey; *Introduction to the Science of Sociology*, by Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess; and *The Origin and Development of the Nervous System from a Physiological Viewpoint*, by Charles Manning Child.

Joseph Pennell, the famous etcher, and Lorado Taft, the widely known Chicago sculptor, have finished manuscripts of two especially significant books in the field of art, which are to be issued in the early autumn by the University of Chicago Press. Both volumes are in the series of Scammon Lectures delivered at the Art Institute of Chicago.

Mr. Pennell's new book on *The Graphic Arts* deals with the modern development of all the graphic arts and is richly illustrated with reproductions in black and white. Under "Illustration" Mr. Pennell discusses Wood-Cutting, Wood-

Engraving, and Modern Methods; under "Etching," the Etchers and the Methods; and under "Lithography," the Artists and the Methods.

Because of Mr. Pennell's own artistic achievement and his definite, aggressive ideas for the future of art, this new volume is likely to cause widespread discussion among artists and those who are interested in the national development of art.

Lorado Taft's new book on *Modern Tendencies in Sculpture*, which will have five hundred illustrations, discusses the work of Rodin and other French sculptors, German and other European sculpture, Augustus St. Gaudens and American sculpture since St. Gaudens. In speaking of the last-named sculptor Mr. Taft remarks that St. Gaudens' influence cannot be overestimated. "Yet no man's leadership is sufficient to bring us into the promised land. The myriad ways in which American sculptors are seeking artistic salvation is an appealing theme."

Especial interest is given to Mr. Taft's new book on sculpture because of his monumental group, "The Fountain of Time," the full-size model of which has recently been placed near the University in Washington Park facing the Midway. It is an impressive, wave-like procession of more than eighty figures symbolizing the passing of the human race before the immovable figure of Time and illustrating the famous couplet of Austin Dobson:

> Time goes, you say? Ah, no,
> Alas, time stays; we go.

Dr. Albert A. Michelson, Head of the Department of Physics at the University of Chicago, who has already received many scientific honors, has been awarded the Albert Medal of the Royal Society of Arts for 1920, according to a dispatch from London. It is a recognition of the scientific value of Professor Michelson's optical inventions, which have provided the means of carrying out measurements with a minute precision hitherto unattainable.

Professor Michelson has also received from British scientific societies the Rumford Medal, and the Copley Medal of the Royal Society, London, as well as the Nobel Prize for Physics from the Swedish Academy of Sciences. His publications are chiefly on researches in light. He has been president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science and of the American Physical Society, and is a corresponding member of the French Academy of Sciences.

The Renaissance Society of the University arranged an exhibit of war posters of all nations in the Museum of the Classics Building at the University August 10–20. Some two hundred posters were exhibited, selected from the collections of the University, Dr. James W. Walker, Dr. Arthur P. Scott, and Mr. Harold R. Willoughby. Addresses interpreting the exhibit were given by Dr. Walker, Dr. Scott, and Mr. Willoughby on the evenings of August 17, 18 and 19. The exhibit was made the subject of an illustrated article signed by H. L. Watkins in *The Poster* magazine for September, 1920.

ATTENDANCE REPORT, SUMMER QUARTER, 1920

	First Term			Second Term			First Term Only			Second Term Only			Both Terms			Total 1920			Total 1919			Gain	Loss
	M	W	T	M	W	T	M	W	T	M	W	T	M	W	T	M	W	T	M	W	T		
I. The Department of Arts, Literature, and Science:																							
1. The Graduate Schools—																							
Arts and Literature	578	673	1,251	434	426	860	222	385	607	78	138	216	356	288	644	656	811	1,467	620	784	1,404	....	....
Science	392	185	577	365	144	509	49	55	104	22	14	36	343	130	473	414	199	613	359	187	546	....	....
Total	970	858	1,828	799	570	1,369	271	440	711	100	152	252	699	418	1,117	1,070	1,010	2,080	979	971	1,950	130	....
2. The Colleges—																							
Senior	252	269	521	225	225	450	36	67	103	9	23	32	216	202	418	261	292	553	201	236	437	116	....
Junior	129	98	227	114	75	189	21	31	52	6	8	14	108	67	175	135	106	241	170	137	307	....	66
Unclassified	254	274	528	237	182	419	44	145	189	27	53	80	210	129	339	281	327	608	255	325	580	28	....
Total	635	641	1,276	576	482	1,058	101	243	344	42	84	126	534	398	932	677	725	1,402	626	698	1,324	78	....
Total Arts, Literature, and Science	1,605	1,499	3,104	1,375	1,052	2,427	372	683	1,055	142	236	378	1,233	816	2,049	1747.	1,735	3,482	1,605	1,669	3,274	208	....
II. The Professional Schools:																							
1. Divinity—																							
Graduate	130	21	151	130	17	147	25	6	31	25	2	27	105	15	120	155	23	178	148	19	167	....	....
Unclassified	42	13	55	42	6	48	6	9	15	6	2	8	36	4	40	48	15	63	63	16	79	....	....
Chicago Theological	24	3	27	30	2	32	7	2	9	13	1	14	17	1	18	37	4	41	24	4	28	....	....
Total	196	37	233	202	25	227	38	17	55	44	5	49	158	20	178	240	42	282	235	39	274	8	....
*2. Medicine—																							
Graduate	71	22	93	71	17	88	2	5	7	2	....	2	69	17	86	73	22	95	69	12	81	....	....
Senior	37	.....	37	38	.....	38	....	....	....	1	....	1	37	.....	37	38	.....	38	32	6	38	....	....
Junior	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	2	....	....
Unclassified	63	3	66	61	3	64	4	....	4	2	....	2	59	3	62	65	3	68	41	1	42	....	....
Total	171	25	196	170	20	190	6	5	11	5	....	5	165	20	185	176	25	201	144	19	163	38	....
3. Law—																							
Graduate	91	4	95	94	6	100	4	1	5	7	3	10	87	3	90	98	7	105	99	6	105	....	....
*Senior	19	1	20	19	1	20	1	....	1	1	....	1	18	1	19	20	1	21	20	....	20	....	....
Candidates for LL.B	48	3	51	44	3	47	4	....	4	....	....	....	44	3	47	48	3	51	37	2	39	....	....
Unclassified	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Total	158	8	166	157	10	167	9	1	10	8	3	11	149	7	156	166	11	177	156	8	164	13	....
4. The College of Education	87	937	1,024	73	505	578	46	680	726	32	248	280	41	257	298	119	1,185	1,304	128	1,135	1,263	41	....
5. The School of Commerce and Administration	141	40	181	125	20	145	20	21	41	4	1	5	121	19	140	145	41	186	42	15	57	129	....
Total Professional	753	1,047	1,800	727	580	1,307	119	724	843	93	257	350	634	323	957	846	1,304	2,150	705	1,216	1,921	229	....
Total University	2,358	2,546	4,904	2,102	1,632	3,734	491	1,407	1,898	235	493	728	1,867	1,139	3,006	2,593	3,039	5,632	2,310	2,885	5,195	437	....
*Deduct duplicates	192	28	220	191	23	214	7	5	12	6	....	6	185	23	208	198	28	226	164	19	183	....	....
Net Total	2,166	2,518	4,684	1,911	1,609	3,520	484	1,402	1,886	229	493	722	1,682	1,116	2,798	2,395	3,011	5,406	2,146	2,866	5,012	394	....

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